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Contributors to This Number

IRWIN A. BERG is Psychometrist and Associate in Psychology at the University of Illinois. He has served as a Prison Psychologist and as a Personnel Investigator in industry.

HARRY E. ELDER is Registrar and Director of Student Programs and Placement, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute.

EDGAR J. FISHER is Assistant Director of the Institute of International Education, New York City; Chairman of the Department of State's Advisory Committee on the Adjustment of Foreign Students in the United States, and Secretary of the International Education Assembly.

WILLIAM M. GILBERT is Assistant Director of the Personnel Bureau at the University of Illinois.

WALTER S. GUILER is Professor of Education, Miami University. He has been a frequent contributor to the JOURNAL. His special field is diagnostic testing and remedial teaching.

SIR HECTOR JAMES WRIGHT HETHERINGTON is Principal and Vice Chancellor of the University of Glasgow. He has been Professor of Philosophy in various universities of the United Kingdom, and has also served in the Intelligence Division of the Ministry of Labour. In 1919 he was in Washington in the Secretariat of the International Labor Conference (League of Nations). He has been a member of the Royal Commissions on Unemployment Insurance, on Workmen's Compensation, and others.

ROBERT P. LARSEN is a Clinical Coun-

sellor and Associate in Psychology at the University of Illinois. He was formerly Director of the Reading Clinic at the University of Iowa.

LIEUTENANT COMMANDER EARL J. MCGRATH, Dean of Administration at the University of Buffalo, is at present on leave of absence serving as Officer-in-Charge, Educational Service Section, Training Division, Bureau of Naval Personnel, Washington, D.C. He was formerly specialist in Higher Education, American Council on Education, and a member of commissions which surveyed the University of Illinois, Louisiana State University, and the institutions of higher education in the state of Utah.

CHARLES E. ROCHELLE returns to the pages of the JOURNAL with his second article on graduate education for Negroes. He is a teacher in the Lincoln High School, Evansville, Indiana, and holds a Doctor's degree from the University of California.

CHRISTIAN O. WEBER is Professor of Psychology and Chairman of the Department of Philosophy and Psychology at Wells College, Aurora, New York, where he also serves as a member of the Committee on Admissions.

LEROY M. WEIR is a member of the Department of Physical Education and Athletics at the University of Michigan.

MALCOLM M. WILLEY is Vice President in charge of academic administration at the University of Minnesota. The present article was given as an address before the National Association of State Universities in Chicago last spring.

The Frontispiece

THE UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII had its inception in the land-grant College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, established by the territorial legislature, March 25, 1907. It became the University of Hawaii in 1920. Our frontispiece shows two views of Hawaii Hall, built in 1911, which was the first permanent building on the present campus site. It is now the administration building, and since September, 1942, has also housed the Hawaiian Branch of the United States Armed Forces Institute. Thousands of servicemen in Pacific areas have furthered their education through correspondence courses offered by the Institute here.

The spearhead of American educational ideals into the Pacific, the University of Hawaii is seeking to take advantage of unusual opportunities. It is best known for its work in tropical agriculture, Oriental studies, including those of India, and research into the biological and sociological problems of the mingling and mixtures of races. The Cooperative Extension Service in Agriculture and Home Economics does educational work throughout the territory. The Hawaii Agricultural Experiment Station, a joint enterprise of the University and the United States Department of Agriculture, and the Pineapple Research Institute—an affiliated organization—carry on valuable research bearing on Hawaii's major industries.

Air-raid shelters, like the one pictured, are within a few minutes' walk of every student and faculty member on the campus. Classroom blackboards give instructions to follow in case of raids. Periodic drills test emergency organization. These reminders, in addition to the presence of uniformed men among the students and the sound of guns and planes nearby, make up the wartime atmosphere of the westernmost college campus of the United States of America.



The University of Hawaii



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The British Universities in War-Time

SIR HECTOR HETHERINGTON

I HAVE been asked to write a short account of the readjustments made by the British Universities to meet war conditions. In October and November, 1942, I spent a strenuous but happy six weeks in the United States expounding this very matter to groups of University and College administrators. Recalling the universal kindness with which I was received, and believing most thoroughly in the importance of the interchange of American and British University experience, I am glad to comply.

I begin by a short preface, explaining certain salient points of difference between the American and British Collegiate and University systems. The first is that in Britain we have almost nothing which exactly corresponds to the American College. Our students pass straight from the secondary (i.e. high) school to Universities, to Teachers' Training Colleges, to Technical or Commercial Colleges, to Schools of the Fine Arts and to a variety of other institutions. Some of these Colleges or institutions may be loosely affiliated to a University. But they are not organic parts of a University, and are, as a rule, quite independent establishments. Broadly speaking the general or liberal education of students is conceived to end at about 18 years of age, with the end of their school courses: and on leaving school they proceed at once to the form of professional training which they desire. It is true to say that the standard of attainment of the British student of 18 is considerably higher than that of his opposite number in the United States.

The British Universities therefore being thus more highly selective and specialized contain a much smaller fraction of the population than

do the Colleges and Universities of the United States. In the academic year 1938-39, the British Universities contained 50,000 full-time students. If allowance is made for the presence of students from overseas, the proportion is almost exactly 1 in 1,000 of the total population. The ratio is higher in Scotland and in Wales than in England. This, however, is the overall figure.

That is the first point: the relative smallness of the total student population. The second is that these 50,000 students were distributed into Universities of differing sizes, organizations, ages, resources and traditions; but all of them members of the same system, constantly in communication with one another, aiming at, and in large part maintaining, the same standards. The British Universities can therefore easily be dealt with as a single group: and the country is so small that on a matter of emergency, representatives of all the Universities can be brought together for consultation at two days' notice. Moreover, all Universities are private autonomous institutions. The State gives large financial subsidies. But it takes no part in the government of the University, and up to date at least, it has maintained its excellent habit of never interfering in University affairs.

One further remark. The British Universities are organized in Faculties: Arts (or Letters), Pure Science, Technology, Divinity, Law, Medicine, Agriculture, Music. Not all Universities have all these Faculties, but most have most of them. The work of the Faculty of Arts resembles in some measure the work of the American college. But most students enter Arts with a vocational aim in mind,—teaching, journalism, administration, business or politics—and choose their courses with that aim in view. Some students who intend later to study Science, Law or Medicine will take one or two years in Arts first. But that is unusual: and only students of Divinity are obliged to take an Arts course as a pre-requisite. Normally, the student enters the Faculty of his choice direct from School. Perhaps, to save misunderstanding, it should be added that although University courses are thus chosen primarily with a view to a later vocation, the Universities do not regard themselves merely as places of technical or professional or vocational training. They aim at *educating* through studies relevant to future vocations. To what extent they succeed in this aim is, of course, another question. But that is what they try to do. They concentrate, therefore, mainly on the appropriate theoretical disciplines, and leave it to other institutions and to the experience of later life to provide the necessary practical skills.

The effect of nearly five years of war has been to destroy the British

University system. In the serious sense of the term, there is no University left in these islands. Every University has been wholly given over to training young men and women for war and allied purposes. The damage is not specially apparent now. The most serious effects will be felt only after the war: and they will be felt in all directions.

The process, however, was by no means so catastrophic as in the last war. Then, in the autumn of 1914, the Universities suddenly and almost completely emptied. Men students of every kind and sort hastened to join the fighting services. After two years or so of heavy losses, falling mostly, as under our voluntary system they were bound to do, on the very best of our young men, there appeared the certain prospect of a disastrous failure of the supply of trained men in all the medical and technical services: at which point the Government had to begin a process of selection for the Army, and even to compel men to return from the Army to complete their civilian training. This time, things were better managed. From the outset of the war one (civilian) department of Government, the Ministry of Labour and National Service, was in general control of the supply of manpower both to the Armed Forces and to the essential industries back of the Forces: and the Ministry took care to see that as far as the national situation allowed, the Universities were able to train men and women for all the functions for which they would be needed. The procedure was simple. The Ministry made regulations prescribing what kinds of students the Universities might accept, in what numbers, for how long, and under what conditions. But the Universities applied the rules. They selected the students; they determined the content of the training and the form of the academic recognition to be accorded to those who had completed it. So long as a University certified that John Doe, being a student of the University, conformed to the conditions prescribed by the Ministry, John Doe could not be drafted. At the end of his course the University rendered to the Ministry a report on John Doe's performance and on his suitability for various types of employment: on the basis of which the Ministry then decided to what service, military or civilian, he should be posted.

The Universities have therefore remained essentially civilian establishments. Their administrative and teaching organizations have continued to operate in much the usual way. Their students have been under University discipline: and no governmental agency, either military or civilian, has exercised any sort of jurisdiction on the University campus. In some Universities, especially in the south of England, some University buildings have been requisitioned by Government for

use either as offices or as military schools. That has meant simply that these buildings have ceased, for the time being, to be part of the University: and the University has had no right of entry to them. But over all the accommodation which remained to the University, University control has been unimpaired.

There is no need to recount in detail the successive adjustments in numbers of students and duration of courses which have been made as the war progressed. The present position is this. Certain categories of students have wholly disappeared. And all students, men and women alike, are allowed to remain at the University only for specified periods, these being, in nearly every case, considerably shorter than is required for a normal course.

In detail, no physically fit men students are allowed to remain in the Faculties of Arts, Law and Divinity beyond the age of 18. That means that the Faculties of Law, Music, and Divinity contain only a handful of men, who are either physically unfit for military service (some of them invalided out of the Forces), or who have established before a competent state tribunal a conscientious objection to military service. The Faculty of Arts contains these categories, together with some boys of under 18, who have come to the University rather earlier than usual in order to get in a year of University study before they go to the Forces. As to women students, they may come to the University only in order to prepare themselves for some branch of national service: but subject to that, they may have 3 years of study, roughly up to the age of 21. They are then at the disposal of the Ministry of Labour, though, if they require a further period of specialist training, as e.g. for teaching, they may be allowed as much as a year in the appropriate institution. Three years is a long enough period to enable a woman student to take a regular course for a pass degree. But it imposes a sharp restriction on the number who can hopefully attempt an honours course,—with results which will certainly be serious later on in those callings which require a high standard of academic attainment. Broadly speaking, in the basic Faculty of Arts, the supply of young scholars, men and women alike, who can look forward to higher posts in University or school teaching, or in the public services, has been completely cut off.

The position is different in the Faculties of Science, Technology and Agriculture. In these Departments the needs of the war have been so pressing that the Universities have been enjoined to accept as many students as before the war, and in some cases, e.g. in Physics and in Engineering, have been asked to increase their intake as much as they

possibly can. The courses, however, have been shortened. In place of a 3 or 4 year course, students may have now only $2\frac{1}{4}$ years. They must leave very soon after their 20th birthdays. To some extent, the handicap of the total shorter period has been overcome by extending the length of the University terms. The normal University session is 3 terms of 10 weeks (8 in Oxford and Cambridge). Most Universities have now instituted a fourth term of 8 weeks or so, in the former long vacation. But of course by no possibility can a $2\frac{1}{4}$ year course produce results comparable with those of the more thorough and leisurely 4 year course. In Science and Technology the Universities are allowed to select, at the end of the undergraduate period, a few star men for further training in methods of research. In these subjects, therefore, there is a potential supply of well-trained men for posts of high academic and technical standing.

Medicine (including Dentistry) stands alone in that the war has brought no change either as regards the number of students admitted or as regards the length of the course. In actual practice, most Universities have a little shortened the Medical course, and a student graduates at age $22\frac{1}{2}$ or 23, i.e. within 5 years of entry to the Faculty. The loss is that after a brief internship, every medical graduate is posted to service: so there is no supply of students for training for higher posts.

Under these conditions, the Universities have retained almost three quarters of their pre-war numbers. And in a good many cases, part of the deficiency has been made up by the arrival in the University of contingents of young service men who have been sent there for special six-months' courses. These men differ from the ordinary students in that they are already enlisted men. The Government pays their University dues and living expenses. But during their six months in the University they are posted to Reserves, and are therefore temporarily civilians, and subject, like all other students, to University discipline. If any of them should prove to be unsatisfactory either in study or in conduct, the University requests the Authorities of his service to recall him to his unit: and that request must be accepted.

This then is the composition of the University student population at the present moment: almost all of them working on shortened courses, and under conditions which remove the margins of leisure for social intercourse and games which mean so much in normal times. Add to that that all men students must take their turn at fire-guard duty,—usually one night a week: and they all must do three hours or so a week of military training. Recall also the difficulties in winter of

the black-out, which in December and January in my own University covers 14 or 15 hours of the 24: of transport: and of rationing, of shortage of books and of materials of all kinds. It isn't easy to run a University these days: and no one is having anything like a normal University experience. But the greatest difficulty of all is staff. Almost all our younger staff, of all Faculties, have left the University for service either with the Forces or with Government Departments. We have had to replace them by postponing retirements, sometimes by actual recall from retirement, by women graduates transferred from other employments, and by young women who have just taken their degrees; or frankly by dropping courses, and amalgamating groups of students in larger units. We get along not so badly just now. But our great anxiety is as to how soon we can hope to get our regular members of staff back again, for they will want and need a period of rehabilitation to academic studies before they are fit to cope with the flood of post-war students returning from the Services.

What the long-distance effect of all this upheaval will be, it is, as yet, too early to say. There are many unresolved questions, chief among them whether a period of compulsory national service will be required of all young men after the war, and if so, at what age. There is also the not unimportant matter of the economic situation of the country, and of the prospects opening in various vocations. But whatever be the answers to these questions, it is not to be doubted that there has been a great stirring of the waters. A new Education Act has almost passed Parliament: and though that has no direct reference to the Universities, it will certainly affect them. It is likely that more students will wish to enrol: that the Universities will be asked to take at least supervisory responsibility for certain forms of education which at present are outside their jurisdiction. Moreover, both Government and Industry have awakened to a more lively consciousness of the importance of Research: and are visibly prepared to increase the resources and opportunities of the Universities in that respect. Adult Education may well be largely extended, especially after the experience of Education in the Forces, in which the Universities have had a large share. And it is also to be hoped that ways will be found of developing and deepening the contacts between the British Universities and Universities overseas, especially of the North American continent. All these are tasks to which we look forward when better days come. We are not ready to cope with them yet. We have first to restore our shattered courses and ways of work. But we shall "make the grade" in due course.

The Present Challenge to Increase Intercultural Activity

EDGAR J. FISHER

IN RECENT years there has been a remarkable increase of interest in international education and cultural interchange. This is a most encouraging sign in the life of a country, like the United States, which has been too culturally isolated and hence too narrowly provincial. With the advent of World War II in 1939, and especially with our active entrance into the fighting after Pearl Harbor, there was a realization that we as a people were not as adequately equipped with a satisfactory understanding of the rest of the world as were other great nations. We soon found that our knowledge of the other modern languages was deficient, as was also our understanding of the politics, geography, and civilization of other important peoples in the world. It was possible in part to explain this situation, but the fact was a disadvantage to us. We owe it to ourselves to make earnest and persistent efforts from this time on to increase our knowledge and appreciation of other cultures, in order that our contribution to international understanding may be more adequate in the future than it has been in the past.

Progress in international education begins at home, and it is important to realize this. The problem of intercultural appreciation is really a problem of improving national perspectives. We must understand ourselves in relation to others. By persistent reading and study, it is possible to gain a remarkable appreciation of and sympathy for the attitudes and points of view of those of different cultures. This method of understanding others, while remaining at home, so to speak, is possible but difficult. Our national education should show us that what appears as specifically national legislation often has direct and immediate repercussions on other nations. Very evident examples of this are our oriental exclusion acts, and our high tariff laws, but other examples could be given. Such legislation works harm to other peoples. Our education makes its contribution to international welfare when we teach our young people, and our adults as well, that what is harmful to others, or lessens their prosperity, ultimately

becomes harmful to us and adversely affects our own prosperity. This is merely another way of saying that we all live in One World. To have this truth actually taught, however, in our schools and colleges, often means a stiff contest against conservative and narrow school boards, and against powerful vested interests in the community.

It is possible to understand the way of life of other cultures while remaining at home, but living for a time in another country is the surest way of obtaining a just evaluation of other peoples. If the casual tourist through a land foreign to him comprehends another people, it is usually due more to good luck, or possibly a generous spirit and liberal background, than to wise planning or conscious endeavor. Tourists are ordinarily not in their most serious moods. In the past our business men and industrial representatives have been too largely engrossed in the pursuit of their gainful activities in other countries to seek to learn about and appreciate the life and ways of those among whom they are temporarily domiciled. Fortunately that is now being remedied, and wisely sponsored orientation courses are given to those who will represent American business abroad. It is the student and the teacher, however, going to study in a foreign country, who become the finest and best intercultural interpreters. They usually remain for a sufficiently long time, have serious motives, and learn the vernacular of the people among whom they reside and work, so that the windows of understanding are opened to them. Most of them are young and receptive. It has been our experience that in any academic community, the most effective committees for guidance to the students from abroad consist of persons who have had the experience of life and study in other lands.

That there is need at this time for more conscious attention to be given to our intercultural relationships is clear. Especially since World War I, there have been agencies in our country that devoted at least a portion of their activities to this field. The Institute of International Education, founded in 1919 by Professor Stephen Duggan, and guided by him ever since, has pioneered in these activities in devoting itself exclusively to international education. Responding to the needs of the times new agencies, both public and private, have recently appeared on the scene. Among these may be mentioned the Division of Cultural Cooperation, originally called the Division of Cultural Relations, of the United States Department of State, the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, the Liaison Committee for

International Education and the International Education Assembly.

The Division of Cultural Cooperation of the Department of State was organized in 1938, as the Division of Cultural Relations. It was established particularly with a view to furthering the Good Neighbor Policy of the United States Government in our relations with the other American Republics. In this work, this Division, under the leadership first of Dr. Ben Cherrington and subsequently of Mr. Charles Thomson, has rendered very effective service in intercultural activities. Begun on a very modest scale these activities have expanded substantially. Outstanding Latin American intellectuals and leaders in various fields have been brought to this country for purposes of travel and study, and many of our leaders have been given the opportunity of going to Latin America. This type of intercultural exchange is productive of understanding. The Division has supported a fellowship program of considerable proportions, in co-operation with the Institute of International Education, by which hundreds of Latin American graduate students and other young persons in the various academic disciplines and the professional fields have had the advantage of a year or more of study in our colleges, universities and specialized schools. In all the Latin American Republics there are one or more Cultural Attachés attached to the Embassies of the United States. The Division of Cultural Cooperation has sought not to supplant the work of important private cultural agencies, such as the American Council on Education, the American Council of Learned Societies, the American Library Association, and the Institute of International Education, but to co-operate closely and effectively with them. It is anticipated that the work of this Division will be a permanent activity of the United States Government. There is now legislation before Congress designed to make possible the extension of these international activities to all parts of the world, and this legislation is deserving of widespread and active support on the part of our citizenry.

The Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs was organized in 1939 under the Directorship of Mr. Nelson Rockefeller. Its activities have been specifically in Latin American relationships, and these have ranged over many academic and non-academic fields. Unlike the Division of Cultural Cooperation, the Office of the Coordinator is avowedly a temporary agency. Subject to very severe criticism and attack in its early days, of which much was decidedly un-

justifiable, this Office has proved itself to be a most influential and effective medium in our inter-American relationships. The important student exchange program, now sponsored by the Department of State, was first initiated by the Coordinator's Office in co-operation with the Institute of International Education. Significant contributions in teacher exchanges and in teacher training have been made, as well as in training programs in commerce and industry. There is practically no valid area of our common life that has not felt the touch and influence in these few years of the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs.

The Liaison Committee for International Education was organized in January, 1943, under the Chairmanship of Dr. Grayson N. Kefauver, Dean of the School of Education of Stanford University. This Committee is comprised of thirty-five educational organizations in the United States that have definite interest in the problems of international education. Each of the organizations sends delegates or observers to the Liaison Committee meetings, which are usually held in Washington, D.C. It is a voluntary organization seeking to co-ordinate action in this field. The Liaison Committee has supported the proposal that an International Education Organization should be established as soon as possible by the United Nations. It has urged the United States Government to take practical steps to this end, in order that special educational and cultural problems connected with the war and reconstruction period should have timely and adequate consideration, both with respect to aid for the devastated countries and with respect to re-education in the Axis countries. The first meeting of the International Education Assembly, held at Harpers Ferry in September, 1943, was called and sponsored by the Liaison Committee.

Only United States educational organizations are included in the Liaison Committee for International Education. It was soon felt that there would be great advantage in having an exchange of thought and opinion with educators from other countries on the problems of education during the war and in the post-war period. This led to the decision of the Liaison Committee, in the spring of 1943, to convene educators of the United and Associated nations. Obviously it was necessary to select in time of general war personalities from the other countries who were in this country at the time, and qualified persons conversant with education in their respective countries were located

from at least twenty-six nations. This group met with the Liaison Committee at the Hill Top Hotel, at Harpers Ferry, West Virginia, from September 14 to 17, 1943. There was then formed the International Education Assembly. Informally and unofficially organized, the success of the International Education Assembly exceeded all expectations, and its deliberations were noted not only in the United States, but in other lands as well. The conclusions reached at the Harpers Ferry Meeting were published in a pamphlet called "Education for International Security". They dealt with the formation of a permanent International Organization for Education and Cultural Development, proposals for rebuilding the educational programs of the war-devastated United Nations, for the reconstruction of the educational programs of the Axis countries, and concerning education for world citizenship. A spirit of co-operation and an attitude of hopefulness, in the face of the very trying conditions of the world in September, 1943, marked the discussions of this significant conference.

A simple organization was set up for the Assembly in order to consider what steps should be taken to conserve the results of the Harpers Ferry Meeting. The officers of the Assembly—Dr. Grayson N. Kefauver, Chairman, Mrs. Aasa G. Skard, of Norway, Vice Chairman, and Dr. Edgar J. Fisher, Secretary—and educators from Brazil, China, Czechoslovakia, and Great Britain constituted an Executive Committee. During the early months of 1944, sentiment crystallized in favor of holding a second meeting of the International Education Assembly, and plans were accordingly made. This meeting was held at Hood College, Frederick, Maryland, in early June, 1944, and was attended by the representatives of thirty countries. The general subject to which the group gave undivided attention during three entire days was the kind of education which will be suitable to build a free democratic order. The conclusions of the Hood College meeting are published in a pamphlet entitled "Education for a Free Society". Continued emphasis is laid upon the need of an International Education Organization, to parallel in education the effective work which the International Labor Organization has accomplished in its field.

Practically all organizations, whether public or private, old or new in this type of activity, unite in proclaiming the fundamental importance of student interchange among nations in the development of international understanding and good-will. In this work, the

Institute of International Education has played a significant role. Based upon the idea that the best method of developing understanding among the nationals of different countries is through an increase of personal contact, student interchange and the circuiting of distinguished scholars as interpreters of their cultures have been the major lines of activity engaged in by the Institute. This has been carried out for students on both the graduate and undergraduate levels. In this international student interchange over 3000 young men and women from other countries have held scholarships and fellowships in our academic institutions, and 2500 United States students have had similar opportunities abroad. The need of increasing intercultural contacts is more commonly recognized today than formerly, but even so, it is not yet as general a conviction as it must become. These exchanges in the main inevitably increase mutual appreciation among peoples, make less possible incidents arising from ignorance and prejudice in this and other lands, and assist in laying the true fundamentals of peace.

In recent years the total number of foreign students at our academic institutions of higher learning annually has fluctuated between 8000 and 10,000. The outbreak of World War II did not result in any appreciable diminution of the total student population from other countries. This number includes the students on scholarships and fellowships from United States resources, holders of stipends from their own governments, and students here on resources of their own. It should be clear that the influence of such large numbers of young scholars, as they return to their homelands after their student residence with us, can be of momentous significance in the future relations between the United States and the countries which they represent. The experience of the past with the foreign students shows definitely that many of them rise to positions of importance through the years, just as among our United States students an unusually high percentage of those who have studied abroad attain positions of influence in our communities. The fact is that the persons eager to explore the meaning of other cultures are of progressive minds, of naturally liberal spirit, and in most cases will respond reciprocally to the influences of their new environment. One should not be surprised at the respect they command and the influence they exert.

The student exchange activities of the Institute of International Education probably reflect the trend of the foreign student movement

in general, and hence some statistics will be of interest. It should be borne in mind that there are many other fellowships and scholarships for students to study abroad than those administered by the Institute, and perhaps a majority of foreign students are not on scholarships. Still these figures doubtless show the trends. Between 1923 and 1944, there were 2250 United States students who secured fellowships in Asia and Europe, 102 in Latin American countries, and 23 in the United States, under the auspices of the Institute. The last named, those studying in their own country, had fellowship opportunities that bore a definite relationship to inter-cultural conditions and studies. In this same twenty-one year period, 3175 students from other countries have had an academic year of study and life in the United States. This is a grand total of some 5550 young men and women, students in a land other than their own, who through these scholarship opportunities undoubtedly had horizons broadened and friendships deepened. Such at least is the well-nigh universal testimony found in the reports which the fellowship holders submit to the Institute twice during the period of an academic year. And again it must be borne in mind that this represents only a small proportion of the total body of students studying in countries other than their own.

It is in the field of Latin American activities that the influence of World War II has been most marked in the student work. Between 1923 and 1938, only 135 students from Latin American countries had scholarships under Institute auspices in the United States. But during the last five years the number increased sharply to 1000 from Latin America. Meanwhile in these five years there has annually been a constantly decreasing stream of students from Europe due to the ravages of World War II. The rising tide of Latin Americans has been due to the closure of the European universities to those students and to the beneficial effects of the Good Neighbor policy so assiduously pursued by the United States Government, by many public and private organizations in this country, and by thousands of private citizens throughout the land. The present violent embroilment in Europe, an unhappy condition to which that continent is periodically subject, made it impossible and fruitless for students, whether North, Central or South American, to go there for study. Formerly when the Latin American planned to go abroad for advanced study it rarely occurred to him to come to the United States, and the same was true of the North American student with respect to study at South American

universities. They and we went to European centers of learning. This in large part accounts for our ignorance of each other. But the closing of European universities due to World War II for students from abroad has stimulated an interest among the republics of the Americas in each other, and especially in our mutual cultural interests.

Through opportunities given by our public and private institutions and agencies the Latin American students have many inducements for carrying on advanced studies in the United States. The colleges and universities of this country have been especially generous in recent years in making available tuition scholarships and fellowships in practically all departments of learning. These opportunities have represented hundreds of thousands of dollars, and have been in addition to a comparatively large number of scholarships annually, covering board and room as well as tuition. Civic organizations, women's federations and industrial concerns are becoming actively interested in participating in this great movement of student interchange. For example, for several years, the Pan-American Airways System has offered through the Institute of International Education one round-trip air-way travel fellowship annually for a student from each of the Latin American countries to study at a United States university, and more recently several additional air-way travel fellowships have been available for our advanced students to go to Latin American countries of their choice for a year of graduate study. Also, the *Reader's Digest* offered through the Institute fellowships for Latin American doctors and nurses to study the treatment of infantile paralysis according to the Sister Kenny method at the University of Minnesota and observe the treatment of this disease at other medical centers.

The total number of Latin American students in this country, whether on scholarship or on their own, is about 2000. They are in all parts of the United States, from East coast to West coast, and from Maine in the north to Florida and Texas in the south. Chiefly in graduate work, and some in highly specialized fields, they are not only securing advantages for themselves in the training which they receive, but are stimulating the interests and activities of our own students. With few exceptions these young men and women make their interpretative contribution of their culture to us inevitably through personal contacts, and they secure in turn an appreciation of the fundamental ideals of the United States. This becomes a sound avenue for intercultural understanding. For them it is indeed superior to and

more exact than the impressions gained from our movies in their own countries, or from the peregrinations of tourists. Undoubtedly after World War II, North, Central and South Americans will again engage in cultural interchange with Europeans, but this should result in no decrease in the student movement between the United States and the Latin American Republics. With whatever part of the world we are dealing, the liberalizing influence of life and study abroad has been realized through the centuries. Even the first half of the twentieth century, weighted down by an excessive nationalism bordering on the primitive, has not disproved the high values of student interchange.

Obviously the value of such an important intercultural enterprise as the student exchange depends to a great extent upon care and success in the selection of candidates. Bearing in mind the purpose of promoting international understanding among peoples, the chief qualifications which students should have are as follows: a good or better academic record with an evidence of seriousness of purpose in some special field; an excellent personality with some evidence of an ability to adjust sympathetically to a new environment and to be a thoughtful interpreter and example of the student's own culture to the nationals of another land; and to be able to use and understand the language of the country to which the student will go. In the case of students appointed to fellowships and scholarships under the auspices of the Institute of International Education, a technique has been developed which is carefully followed in order to insure as high a degree of success as is possible. The satisfactory results have justified the care and attention given to this important work.

When once the student has been appointed and arrives in the United States, the question of his satisfactory adjustment to college life, and to town life as well, becomes of prime importance. For too long a time we believed that the adjustment of the foreign student just simply happens. It is perhaps the large influx of Latin American students that has led us to see that this adjustment does not simply happen, but can best be brought about by some conscious planning. The Latin Americans have known precious little about our academic institutions, and we perhaps have known no more about their academic ways and methods. Their own university organization is much more similar to that of the European universities than it is to anything which is indigenous in our educational system. The Latin American students in the past have in general been less well prepared in English

than were the European students usually, and this often tended to discouragement and disappointment when they began their academic work in the United States. The need for conscious planning was recognized, and in 1940, there was appointed an Advisory Committee of the Division of Cultural Relations on the Adjustment of Foreign Students in the United States. Since its appointment, this Advisory Committee, of which the writer is Chairman, has had at least two meetings annually, to study the problems of foreign student adjustment, increasingly important as they have been in time of general war.

In 1942, the Advisory Committee called a three-day conference at Cleveland, Ohio, of foreign student advisers from the colleges and universities. At this meeting persons working with foreign students met for the first time to discuss common problems, share experiences, and plan for more effective methods in carrying on their work.

Our normal academic practices and traditions are so different from those that characterize the life at institutions of higher learning in other parts of the world, that conscious attention should be given to help the orientation of most students from abroad. Much can be done in fact before the student arrives at his place of study, but it will probably not be done unless the student is coming under the auspices of an organization experienced in this field. The student can secure much helpful guidance from fellow-countrymen who have previously had the advantage of study abroad, and perhaps in the institution to which he plans to go. A catalog of the college or university can be sent in advance. Students under the auspices of the Institute of International Education have sent to them guide books and bulletins descriptive of our academic life, and giving other useful information as well. The students can often meet American educators and business men resident in their own country, who can furnish helpful information. It is usually important that the student be met at the place of arrival in this country, and also that he should be met and welcomed on the campus to which he is going.

The Advisory Committee on the Adjustment of Foreign Students has urged the appointment of a university or college officer on every campus, where there are foreign students, who is charged with the responsibility for counseling and guiding these students. The whole paraphernalia of hours and points of credit, compulsory attendance upon classes, many academic restrictions at the universities, to say nothing about the undergraduate colleges, are usually quite unfamiliar

to the students from other countries. Our numerous extracurricular activities are foreign to the foreign student. He needs guidance concerning them, as also concerning the social practices and relationships of the campuses, and the significance of the fraternity and sorority systems, or local clubs where such exist. There are at times financial problems of the students, often due not to a lack of adequate arrangements made before they left home, but to changes in the international situation that swept their arrangements aside. The students from abroad are assets in our academic communities, and an increasing number of colleges and universities are, with justification and positive results, putting time, thought and funds into the problems related to the successful orientation of the foreign student on the campus. The academic community should prepare the campus for the foreign student; it should interpret the campus to the student, and to accomplish this, it should understand the culture from which the foreign student comes.

The civic community should also take advantage of the presence of representatives of other cultures. The foreign students are called upon to speak at clubs and at church affairs, and they are usually able to show to the townsmen something of the merits of their own cultures. But if the foreign student needs to be adjusted to our academic and civic communities, it is sometimes the case that we need to adjust ourselves to these visitors from abroad. Good-will is an asset to be secured when it is mutual. The war has increased this problem. Many foreign students are in an entirely different relationship on the college campus and in the community from that in which they were when they first came, due to changes in the international position of their country. Not only do these students frequently know too little about us and our ways, but all too often even our academic circles know too little about the culture of their foreign students. Either situation forms a basis for some misunderstanding.

The fact is that our colleges and universities have bestirred themselves splendidly in these recent years in this respect. Excellent programs are being set up, or planned for the immediate future, sometimes calling for the construction of buildings as centers for intercultural exchange between the representatives of this and other nations. The great International Houses in New York, Chicago and Berkeley, have pioneered in this work, although they have not been established through university funds. Each university naturally adopts

the program best suited to its local conditions and needs. Some institutions do not favor residence centers for the foreign students, but social centers where the United States students and those from other countries can mingle and carry out an intercultural program. There are many variants in the extensive plans that are now projected, and this is fortunate. Most of the foreign students themselves recognize that it is important that they should have every proper opportunity to associate with the students of the country in which they are studying, in order that the benefits of the year abroad should be mutually significant. They usually recognize also that students of the same nationality should not associate too much together while studying in a foreign land. Residence arrangements which tend to concentrate the foreign students by themselves should obviously be avoided.

The responsibility of the people of the United States in assisting in the rebuilding of education through intercultural exchange seems clear and certain for the post-war period. Our institutions have been practically unscathed in the material sense, and our resources are greater than those of any other country. Large numbers of students from the war-devastated nations, especially in the scientific and professional fields, will be in need of training, which can for some time best be secured in the universities and colleges of this country. Indeed the demand and pressure for admission has already begun, and students in considerable numbers from China, France, Greece, Iran, Iraq, Norway, Poland and other countries hope to come to the United States as soon as possible. In fact they have begun to arrive. Many of the students will receive the necessary financial support for their training from their governments. But out of our abundance, we in the United States will undoubtedly wish to share in giving assistance to young men and women who have been denied the opportunities of formal education by the ravages of war. In welcoming the students from other countries, if an extra load upon our extensive educational system is entailed, surely its acceptance becomes a duty and a responsibility which the experiences of the war years should enable us to carry with greater ease.

There is no lack of reliable information concerning the terrible plight of education in the world at this time. Added to the disintegration due to war in practically all countries, there has been devastation in some countries, exploitation and enslavement of educational institutions and personnel in the Axis-dominated countries, and the en-

slavement of minds in the Axis countries themselves. The educational needs in the war-torn areas literally begin with pads and pencils, after the children have been properly conditioned with decent food and medical care. The heroic treks of entire institutions of learning in China have won the admiration of the world. With their systems of education warped and restricted in varying degrees by the pressures of World War II, the neutral nations have not escaped. Indeed no country is free from vital dangers to its educational processes, although some have suffered in pitiful degree more than others. In the United States we must guard against short-sighted educational retrenchments in things material, in limitations upon personnel, and in a tendency to such an over-emphasis upon the technical subjects that the broad bases of general culture are neglected or brought under suspicion. The subjects of history and literature, ethics and religion, which develop the critical spirit, help interpret the times, and demonstrate the moral bases of an interdependent world, are vitally important at this moment. These studies must be reclaimed for large numbers to whom they have for too long been a closed book.

But let us rest our case in the hope that there will come such an increase in intercultural exchanges at all academic levels, and in non-academic areas as well, in the post-war world, that the healing influences upon a bleeding world will be unmistakable. Evidences from the past and present of the significant values of intercultural intercourse are apparent, and they will doubtless become increasingly conclusive in the years to come, as we devote ourselves to the challenging tasks of rehabilitating and reconstructing a world that has been on the verge of material and moral ruin due to the excesses of a horrible period of international strife. As for us, with a knowledge of the needy conditions and with a willingness to co-operate permanently in educational activities on an international scale, the people of the United States can make a wise and worthy contribution to the intellectual, social and perhaps spiritual welfare of all peoples. If conscious of the basic oneness of the fundamentals of our cultures, of the inevitable unity of our world, we should respond to a challenge worthy of our power and influence, and of the professions that we so often make.

Some Specific Educational Problems in Post-War Planning

MALCOLM M. WILLEY

THE IMPACT of the war upon higher education has served to focus attention upon many questions that involve the future of the colleges and the universities. It is inevitable that colleges and universities should feel the brunt of war, for the composition of student bodies includes those age groups of men upon whom dependence must be placed in developing fighting forces. Likewise, the technical skills possessed by members of a teaching and research staff are among those most urgently needed, with the result that faculty members as well as students are pulled away. The immediate effect of this needs no elaboration. The institutions have made such adjustments as they can to the difficulties that have beset them. There has been bewilderment, frustration, and discouragement. One hopeful aspect of the situation, however, is that out of all the disruption there has emerged what appears to be a renewed interest in educational problems, and if this is developed and made effective it can result in changes in higher education that are both desirable and necessary—as well as long overdue. For the second time in a decade there is an unparalleled opportunity to consider the fundamental questions that higher education faces.

The significance of this opportunity was outlined recently under the general subject, "Basic Issues of Higher Education in the Post-War Period."¹ Some of the ideas presented then have been incorporated in the report of the Special Committee to Study Post-War Educational Problems of the National Association of State Universities. A brief summary will provide the foundation upon which the present discussion is to be based.

In the earlier paper it was suggested that a period of disruption, by disturbing the normal ways of thinking, makes possible a new perspective in terms of which educational problems may be re-examined. It was further pointed out that in recent months the tendency in discussions of educational planning for the post-war period has been to think of specific and immediate problems. For example, much attention is given

¹ Malcolm M. Willey, "Basic Issues of Higher Education in the Post-War Period," in *North Central Association Quarterly*, forthcoming.

to such subjects as acceleration, prediction of enrollments, evaluation of war training and experience in terms of conventional academic credits, the machinery for integrating returning veterans into the student body, the creation of counseling and guidance systems, the administration of federal funds that will be made available for educational subsidy of demobilized veterans, the recruitment of faculties to carry mounting teaching loads, and many other similar topics. No one can question the immediacy of the problems relating to these areas, but it should be stressed that such an approach, while necessary and defensible for administrative officers as they face their day to day problems, is inadequate as a means of enabling us to analyze and understand the kinds of questions that have the greatest significance for the future of higher education. It was pointed out, moreover, that a real danger exists that in allowing attention to rest upon these questions of the moment we shall be distracted altogether from studying the important questions to which we should be giving consideration. Finally, it was stated that the problems that more properly should be the object of study today are not those that the war itself has precipitated, but rather are problems that have gradually, almost imperceptibly, been emerging over a period of many years. The war has thrown these into sharper relief, but it has not created them. It has, however, provided conditions for attempting to understand them. How we analyze these problems *now* will have much to do with the long-term trend of higher education in what we refer to as the post-war period. The thesis developed from this line of reasoning was "that all educational planning must start from a consideration of the *objectives* or purposes it is intended to achieve and, contrariwise, that all discussions of post-war education are largely futile until there is agreement as to what higher education is seeking to achieve." The remainder of the earlier discussion was devoted to substantiation of this thesis, thus drawing a distinction between the broader questions of educational objectives and the narrower consideration of immediate administrative matters. The basic question, it was concluded, is, Education of *whom* and for *what*?

It should be apparent that while any discussion is desirable that helps clarify the factors involved in post-war educational planning, there is another step that must be taken, namely, the indication of how one may proceed to make analyses that will reveal the underlying nature of the basic objectives that are to be formulated. To talk of stat-

ing objectives in general is to deal in abstractions. Having agreed that it is desirable to have objectives, how does one proceed concretely to reveal and clarify them? Without any thought that so inclusive a question can be adequately answered in all of its ramifications, the purpose of this paper is to suggest how an approach may be made to the study of some of the fundamental questions that do directly involve the formulation of our educational objectives.

To simplify the presentation, the concrete approach will be introduced with specific illustrations centered around three propositions, acceptance of which appears to me essential in systematizing an answer to the earlier question, Education of whom and for what?

This is the first proposition: *Adequate formulation of our educational objectives depends upon an understanding of the nature of the individuals with whom we are or should be working.*

Although the data are readily available, it is easy to overlook some of the changes that have been taking place with respect to college enrollments in the last few decades. Since 1900 registrations in institutions of higher education have multiplied more than six times, from about 238,000 to 1,500,000² students. Put in another way, of the persons aged 18 through 21 in the general population, four out of every 100 were enrolled in higher education in 1900; in 1930 the number had increased to 12; and 1940, to 15.³ The fact of increase in the size of college populations can be stated in many ways, and no one will dispute it. But who are these students who are coming to us in such numbers? Do they represent a rigid selection within the upper ability ranges of the high school graduates? What proportion of the superior students who finish high school do go on to college? What changes, if any, have been taking place in the ability composition of the college population?

With respect to this last question, it is a common assumption that as the college population has grown in this country there has been a corresponding lowering of the average ability of the college population. The observation is frequently made that ten, twenty, or thirty years ago the aggregate college student body was composed of highly selected secondary school graduates, and that especially with the influx

² Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942. p. 140.

³ U. S. Office of Education, *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: "Statistical Summary of Education, 1939-40,"* Washington: Government Printing Office, 1941. Vol. II, Ch. 1, p. 30.

of students into publicly supported state universities, the college student body has come to represent more and more closely in ability distribution a cross-section of the total population. If this is so, it has significant bearing upon the educational objectives of institutions of higher education generally, and publicly supported institutions in particular. But is it so? We know at the University of Minnesota that in the last decade at least, there has been no significant change in the abilities of entering freshmen in our six undergraduate colleges—measured by college aptitude test scores and rank in high school graduating class.⁴ The facts seem to point contrary to the common assumption, and until it is established that a new form of ability selection is taking place in higher education generally, one can argue with validity that while the numbers now going to college have increased, and the socio-economic selection may be different, there is no appreciable change in the over-all distribution of the abilities of the students. This, then, is one example of what we need to know more about if educational purposes are to be stated meaningfully.

No one can deny that the college population of this country is a superior group, measured in terms of the general population. There is definite selection on an ability basis as the educational ladder is climbed. At the University of Minnesota the I.Q. distribution of the entering freshmen (1937) was such as to place the average or median student in the upper 15 per cent of the general population. The college professor who carelessly remarks that he has "every range of human ability" in his classroom is obviously ignorant of the extent to which his students are a selected group. And this fact may have direct bearing upon his own objectives and the conduct of his courses.

The severity of academic selection as students move up from the elementary school to the junior high school, the senior high school, and then on to college and the graduate school has been demonstrated in a study of the students who were in the sixth grade of the Minneapolis public schools in April 1923, and whose subsequent educational careers were followed through to 1940—which would be seven years beyond the normal time it would take a sixth grade student to graduate from college.⁵ The number of these sixth grade pupils per thousand

⁴ Unpublished Report of Senate Committee on Education on "Student Mortality and Survival," University of Minnesota.

⁵ Data drawn from Viola E. Benson, "The Intelligence and Later Scholastic Success of Sixth Grade Pupils," *School and Society*, 55: 163-167, 1942.

who remained to graduate from high school was 490; 180 per thousand entered college; 80 per thousand graduated from college; 18 per thousand went on to graduate study. The author shows a correlation between I.Q. and the grade level attained. But what is more important as it relates to the question of the degree of success we are achieving in this country in the education of the superior students (which bears directly upon the question of educational purposes and objectives) is the disclosure that of these sixth grade students, large numbers dropped out of school even though in scholastic promise they exceeded the median ability of the students that actually entered college. Nearly one fourth of those who graduated from high school and did not go on to college had an I.Q. exceeding the median I.Q. of those who received bachelor's degrees.

In attempting to state educational objectives, how far are we justified in ignoring the able students who do not go to college, and in framing our formulations only in terms of those who do? A study recently completed at Minnesota forces this question upon us in another way by asking, What happens to high school graduates?⁶ This study follows up every student who graduated in June 1938 from the high schools of the state. It shows that of students who stood in the upper ten per cent of the high school graduating class, one out of two went on to college. Only one in three of the graduates who stood in the upper 30 per cent of their high school classes in June 1938 went on to college. Such data raise difficult questions: Why do not these ablest students continue their education? What are the implications of this non-attendance in college of the large proportion of superior high school students? Does it reflect merely a financial problem? Without arguing that every superior high school student should go to college, there is still a situation that calls for clarification and, lacking that clarification, it is difficult if not impossible to frame our general educational objectives. And as Benson points out in the article quoted above, "the waste resulting from able high school graduates not going to college may be greater than is the waste resulting from those without the ability attempting to do college work."⁷

These questions of student selection are by no means the only ones that need to be answered, but they are fundamental in any attempt to

⁶G. Lester Anderson and T. J. Berning, "What Happens to High School Graduates," in *Studies in Higher Education*, Biennial Report of the Committee on Educational Research, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1940, pp. 15-40.

⁷Benson, *op. cit.*, p. 166.

understand the nature of the individuals with whom we are or should be working.

The second proposition to serve as focus for questions in answer to Education of whom and for what? may be stated as follows: *Adequate formulation of our educational objectives depends upon an understanding of what we are trying to accomplish with the students who have enrolled in the colleges and universities, as well as of the collective needs of the society that provides for higher education and to which the student eventually returns.* A number of concrete studies may be suggested as helping achieve this understanding.

If the first group of questions we need to ask before attempting to formulate educational objectives relates—as suggested above—to the nature of the students we are or should be serving, the second group of questions quite naturally relates to what happens to the students who do actually enroll in our institutions. Obviously, what happens to them after they come to the campus—that is, their subsequent educational experience—should be a significant determining factor in our formulation of educational objectives.

Under the direction of Dean T. R. McConnell of the College of Science, Literature, and the Arts at the University of Minnesota, a long-time study of student mortality has been completed for the Senate Committee on Education which is, in fact, the University Committee on Post-war Problems.⁸ There are many adequate data on general mortality of college students, as for example, those presented in the *Biennial Survey of Education* of the United States Office of Education. These, however, lack the particular refinements necessary to bring out the real significance of what is happening. They do not enable one to relate student failures to such factors as academic ability, measured by previous accomplishment, or to the actual accomplishment within the colleges. The Minnesota study does this. It shows, to summarize briefly, that six years after they entered in the fall of 1937, only 37.1 per cent of the members of the 1937 fall freshman class had received a degree of any kind from the University. Of those who registered in the College of Science, Literature, and the Arts 42 per cent failed to complete six quarters of study, and of those who did complete these six quarters, one in three had not earned a "C" average. Almost one fifth of those fall freshmen of 1937 had dropped out of the University before the end of the first academic year, and a third of the original

⁸ Data cited in the following paragraphs are from unpublished studies.

group did not return at the beginning of the second academic year. Forty-five per cent did not begin their third academic year, that is, nearly one half of the entering freshmen of the fall of 1937 had left the University by the beginning of the junior year.

It is when these mortality data are related to high school ranks that they stand out in full sharpness. Of the students who entered the University in the fall of 1937 with high school ranks above the 90th percentile—that is, in the upper tenth of their graduating classes—only 63 per cent were in the University and had earned a grade "C" or better at the end of six quarters. Of the fall entrants in 1937 who stood in the upper 20 per cent of their high school classes, only 52 per cent had obtained any degree from the University after six years.

Closely related to studies along this line should be studies on grading systems and their meaning. When the General College at the University of Minnesota was established, students of lowest scholastic promise were enrolled in it, rather than in the Arts College. Presumably the average ability in the Arts College should have been raised, or putting it another way, if standards remained unchanged the percentage of failures should have decreased. Actually the failure rate in the Arts College after the creation of the General College remained the same; the faculty continued to fail a fixed proportion of the students even though the ability distribution within the college had been skewed upward.

Should not such data impel faculties and administrative officers to reconsider what it is they are trying to accomplish with students? Clearly we are not accomplishing any well conceived purpose for the large numbers who fail to complete successfully the courses they have begun. For a large proportion of students who start a college course we are apparently failing badly to meet their individual needs. Why are we failing to meet the needs of able and selected students? What kind of education would be adapted to the majority of today's high school students, especially those who enter the state university and who presumably return to the communities of that state?

These questions in turn bring to mind other concrete studies that might be made. Although the approach is partially negative, an analysis of existing course offerings is suggested as pertinent to the discussion of objectives. How many individual courses should an institution offer? How many different courses does any given institution offer? In 1941-42 the University of Minnesota had some 4000 courses for its students, or one course for each three to four students

enrolled. In the six colleges in which undergraduates are primarily concentrated, 3180 courses were listed, one for every three students. These data are drawn from a systematic survey of all course offerings at the University in 1941-42.⁹ Such curriculum studies point the way toward preliminary answers to the question raised in the report of the post-war problems committee of the Association: "Must we," asks the Committee, "teach as much as we do?" And what is the relation between our assumed objectives and the curriculum material through which we seek to achieve them? Are courses ends in themselves, or are they devices for attaining well determined educational purposes? Without elaboration, a few typical findings of this Minnesota curriculum survey will be presented here, all of which should be pondered in the light of the questions just asked and the previous data on student selection and mortality.

To the extent that Minnesota is typical, it can be said that college curricula are growing rapidly and by a process of accretion. About one fifth of the courses now offered were added since 1935, and while reasons given by departments for adding courses were rather varied, the largest single factor appears to be departmental reorganizations that introduce new areas of study. Whether these new areas are related more closely to student needs or to faculty conceptions of scholarship is not entirely clear. Once a course has been established, it tends to remain in the curriculum unchanged beyond keeping it up to date. "Alterations in aims or objectives were reported for only 10 per cent of all university offerings during the past decade."

In this study considerable attention was given to the expressed aims of departments and instructors. The details are revealing, but here it can only be stated that instructors tend to think in specialist terms: among the most frequently indicated aims of courses was "to provide systematic advanced instruction." The report summarizes the situation as follows: "It would seem that instructors in almost every college are striving to gather into their courses as many students as possible who are interested in specialization, and to sift out gradually individuals who do not fit this particular academic pattern".¹⁰

Associated with this tendency and having enormous significance in relation to student needs and the objectives that embrace them, was the evidence concerning course prerequisites. "For the vast ma-

⁹ These and the subsequent data on this point are from *Studies in Higher Education*, 1940-42. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1942. See in this T. R. McConnell and Ruth E. Eckert, "The University Curriculum Survey," pp. 32-64.

¹⁰ McConnell and Eckert, *op. cit.*, p. 52.

jority of courses, prerequisites of some type were specified . . . including about 9 out of every 10 courses in the undergraduate colleges. . . . Even within the Arts College enrollment in more than four-fifths of the offerings in every department was restricted by one or more prerequisites." In general, the prerequisite requirements fall within the same department, thus increasing the difficulty of broadening the educational pattern of the student—a practice that appears to extend right through the Graduate School as well. Such practices raise again the question of how well college courses are adapted to the needs and best interests of the students. The mortality figures already cited should create considerable doubt about any answer that claims satisfactory adaptation. And how well are the needs of the students as citizens of the community met by such curriculum policy?

In the study being summarized, staff members were also asked to recommend any changes they thought should be made with respect to prerequisites. About four-fifths of them indicated that they saw no need for change. About 10 per cent indicated a desire for change, and from analysis of these replies it appears that the desired changes were in the direction of further narrowing of requirements.¹¹ It is clear that specialized rather than general educational purposes are paramount in the curricula as now offered the students. Specialization, in fact, is what is being accomplished by those who receive the baccalaureate degree. At Minnesota another study reveals that of the freshmen who entered the Arts College in 1939 and 1940 and completed their degree courses in four years, well over fifty per cent of the course work taken was in one field. "Specialization is almost as characteristic of the first two college years as of the junior and senior years."¹² Yet nearly half of the Arts College freshmen never reach the junior year.

How are such facts to be reconciled with the figures that show the large numbers of students who enter college and fail to complete it? Is there any relation between the failure to enter college of able students who graduate from high school and these educational situations I have been describing? How well do our educational objectives conform to our educational practices? Is there a lag between practice and what the data show the needs to be?

Only after further study has been made along the lines indicated here shall we be in a position to answer these and similar questions definitely, and to state realistically the educational intentions we are

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 56-58.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 126.

seeking to realize. Even though the data are fragmentary, they suggest why there should be a growing interest, particularly in public institutions, with respect to proposals for general education, vocational and semi-technical education in relation to general education, and to programs of integrated state-wide education.¹³ This interest is one of the encouraging evidences of educational ferment to which reference was made at the beginning.

Only passing reference can be made to another approach that is essential in any formulation of educational objectives. The over-all number of courses available to students has been mentioned, but what of the course requirements that must be met by any individual student in earning his degree? Such a question goes beyond the matter of specialization or course concentration; it introduces the problem of the fragmentizing of education, the influences of which are yet to be comprehensively analyzed. Once objectives are agreed upon it is even possible that they could be made effective with fewer courses per student than are now required. As Mr. Hutchins has pointed out, "a mosaic of courses does not constitute an education."

Finally, one additional topic may be mentioned for specific study. What is the student attitude with respect to curriculum policy? M. T. Herrick recently reported a study at the University of Illinois in which students were asked to express their preference for a broadly conceived general introductory course in a department as against the conventional introductory course that serves as a prerequisite to advanced courses. Less than half of the freshmen indicated preference for the broadly conceived general course, but there was a progressive increase in the proportion of students preferring the general course as one moves up through the sophomore, junior, and senior classes. Although less than half of the freshmen preferred the general course, two-thirds of the seniors did so.

The third and final proposition to which questions regarding educational objectives should be related is of a slightly different order from the two that have been discussed, but it may be stated this way: *Adequate formulation of educational objectives depends not only upon an understanding of the student and the community from which*

¹³ See also *Higher Education and the War* (edited by T. R. McConnell and Malcolm M. Willey), *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Vol. 231, January 1944, particularly "Liberal Education after the War" by T. R. McConnell (pp. 81-87); "General Education in the Postwar Period," by Earl J. McGrath (pp. 74-80); "New Concepts of Terminal Education," by Charles E. Friley and James A. Starrak (pp. 123-28); and "State-wide Planning for Post-war Educational Needs," by George D. Stoddard (pp. 135-141).

he is drawn, but upon a willingness to adapt higher education to those individual and collective needs. In short, there is no point in undertaking elaborate researches of which those cited here are but typical examples, unless the implications of the resulting data are acted upon. The primary value of a concrete approach in the consideration of objectives lies in its power to force consideration of necessary changes. It is difficult to remain complacent when confronted at one's own institution by such data as those reviewed here relative to the abilities of high school graduates who do, or do not, go on to college, or those on the failures of the students who enter college or those involving the curriculum and the attitudes and policies with respect to it. It is out of discussions of data such as these by staff members—administrators and faculty alike—that there will emerge a better comprehension of the task and of the failures of higher education.

Unless there is clearer comprehension, we shall be in no safe position to meet adequately the problems soon to confront us with the ending of the war. Obviously, postwar planning that goes no further than bringing back to the campuses large numbers of students who are to fail in large numbers after they return, or who are to be paced through course requirements that cannot be justified, will result only in futility both for the student and for the institution.

But it is not only the returning soldiers who must be considered. There are also the increasing numbers of students who are pushing up through the secondary schools. As this number multiplies, the problem of integrating the work of the secondary schools and the colleges grows in complexity. How momentous the changes are in this respect is seen in the fact that for every one hundred boys and girls in the country aged 14 to 17 inclusive, in 1900 only eleven were in high school. In 1920 it was 32 per hundred. In 1930 it was 51 per hundred; in 1940 it was 73 per hundred—almost seven times what it had been forty years earlier.¹⁴ What is more significant, the proportions finishing high school have also increased. In 1906-7 for every 1000 students in the fifth grade of the elementary schools, 139 finished high school. In 1928-29, for every 1000 students in the fifth grade, 378 finished high school—that is, in two decades the number almost tripled.¹⁵ Although the expansion of collegiate enrollments,

¹⁴ Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942, Table 131.

¹⁵ U. S. Office of Education, *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States*, "Statistical Summary of Education 1939-40," Washington: Government Printing Office, 1941. Vol. II, Ch. 1, p. 39.

as given earlier, has not been as rapid as the increase in secondary enrollments, still further growth in the numbers moving from the high school to the collegiate level is to be expected. As it is, no country on earth is sending up through its secondary schools so large a proportion of its youth; and no country on earth is faced at the college level with the problems and the possibilities that this trend evokes. Again it must be stressed (as it was in the report of the Association's special committee) that the problems we now face are not precipitated primarily by the war, but are the outgrowths of tendencies that reflect long-range social changes. The war merely presents an opportune time for a review of our educational thought and policies, so that we may reframe our educational objectives for the purpose of meeting the future in the light of what has been happening in the past.

The report of the special committee of the National Association of State Universities has stressed that all educational planning must start from a consideration of the objectives it is intended to achieve. The purpose of this paper has been first, to point out that objectives can be realistically stated only if they are the outgrowths of facts derived from concrete studies; and second, to indicate kinds of studies that must be undertaken to establish the basis in terms of which objectives can be revealed. The studies included here for comment or summary were only examples; they centered largely in the areas of student selection and curriculum because those are the two areas most vitally related to the statement of aims and purposes. This presentation can appropriately end by repetition of the final paragraph of the report of the Association's Special Committee to Study Post-war Educational Problems. That paragraph catches the point of view, the philosophy, that it is hoped, in more concrete terms, has been elaborated in this paper:

"Americans have had great faith in education. Recent criticisms have tended to weaken that faith. The growth of taxes and financial burdens in the post-war years may call into question many of our established institutions depending upon public taxation for support. We must therefore subject education to critical analysis before less skillful persons invade our province. Support is likely to be based on education's effectiveness—not in the sense of vocational effectiveness, but in its effectiveness in training for citizenship and social living. In the judgment of your committee, education's fate is in its own hands."

College Education after the War

EARL J. McGRATH

NO ONE KNOWS when the war will end. No one knows how long it will be after the actual fighting stops before our troops will return home. No one knows how many veterans will begin a college education or resume one suspended by military service. These are but a few of the unknowns which make post-war educational planning exceedingly difficult. Nevertheless, such planning is necessary, for when hostilities cease, thousands of returning service men will enter institutions of higher education. If suitable educational opportunities are to be made available for veterans, as well as for the usual graduates of the secondary schools, it is imperative that college faculties begin to make post-war plans now. Probable economic and social influences on college education after the war should be examined before such planning begins. Other forces, not now apparent, may become manifest either before the war ends, or during the demobilization period, but it is unlikely that they will seriously reduce or deflect the forces already at work.

One factor which must be taken into consideration in planning post-war college education can be forecast with certainty. College enrollments will unquestionably be larger than they have ever been before in the history of American higher education. This significant social phenomenon will not be a consequence of the educational privation of the war years. Without doubt, the postponement of college education caused by military service will swell enrollments abnormally in the years immediately after the war. The persistent causes of increased college attendance, however, are more deeply rooted in our society.

The continuous increase in attendance in educational institutions grows out of the conviction, enunciated by the founding fathers, that widespread dissemination of knowledge among the people is an essential ingredient in a democratic way of life. In the early decades of the Republic this principle was little more than an ideal. A few states, like Indiana,¹ declared in their first constitution that educational opportunity from the elementary grades to the university

¹ John Dale Russell and Charles H. Judd, *The American Educational System*, Cambridge, Mass.: The Riverside Press, 1940, p. 107.

should be made available to all citizens. But in 1816 this statement of a profound social principle was little more than a pious hope, for as late as the end of the nineteenth century only a small percentage of Americans had been able to attend a secondary school.² No particular date in American history marks the appearance of large enrollments in educational institutions. Except for intermittent periods of serious social disorganization, occasioned by economic depressions and wars, the curve of enrollments in educational institutions has risen steadily. It is not, however, what the mathematician would call a straight line curve, for a rapid acceleration has occurred during the past thirty or forty years.

What has caused this peculiarly American social phenomenon? One factor in the situation has been the changing proportion of adults in this country.³ In 1790 there were seven hundred eighty-two white persons twenty years of age or over for every one thousand white children under sixteen. In 1930 there were two thousand thirteen such adults for every thousand children.⁴ It is clear, therefore, that our population has become preponderantly adult. This increase in the economically productive members of the average family has made possible the extension of the education of the young. A more even distribution of the national wealth has paralleled this increase in the proportion of adults. Wage earners today receive a considerably larger share of the total national income than they did fifty years ago. This statement is not to be understood as implying that an equal distribution of wealth is even being approached. It does imply that the average family has greater means to obtain additional education for the younger generation.

Child labor laws have also extended the years of school attendance. In the past twenty years most states have enacted laws excluding children from full-time employment until they have reached a specified age, usually sixteen years, or until they have completed a certain amount of schooling. Thousands of boys and girls who would have discontinued their education at an early age have been held in school by these child labor laws. The steady increase in the amount of general and specialized education required by industry, commerce,

² Annual Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1899-1900, Vol. II, p. 2119, Washington: Government Printing Office, 1901.

³ Bureau of the Census, United States Department of Commerce and Labor, *A Century of Population Growth, 1790-1900*, p. 103.

⁴ *Fifteenth Census of the United States, 1920*, Population, Vol. II, pp. 578-595.

and the professions, and the vocational preferment accorded to those who have it, have also encouraged young men and women to remain in school.

Before the war these various economic and social forces had sent seventy per cent of the young men and women between fourteen and seventeen years of age into secondary schools, and in some states the percentage had risen to ninety. Military service and lucrative war jobs have reduced these percentages. When the counter pressures of the war are removed, however, normal social forces will in time re-establish earlier enrollment trends. As high school registrations approach one hundred per cent of the fourteen to seventeen year age group, a larger and larger proportion of these students will enter institutions of higher education.

This normal growth in college enrollments will, however, be increased in the years immediately following the war by large numbers of veterans whose education was temporarily interrupted by military service. With the exception of the small group disqualified by physical disability or deferred for vocational reasons, all prospective or actual male college students have entered military service in the past two or three years. Tens of thousands of these young men, who would normally have been in college since 1940, will return to civilian life with undiminished interest in higher education. Under the encouragement of government leaders and the public generally, veterans will resume their formal education after the war. Mr. Bernard Baruch's recent report on post-war adjustment policies exemplifies the attitude of thinking Americans regarding higher education for service men.

"Higher education has been converted from peace to war and consideration will have to be given to its quick conversion back to peace. Trained people are an inestimable asset to every community. The war's interruptions may leave the future devoid of many of the educated, trained and thoughtful people so necessary in every field of human endeavor. We would urge that those whose courses have been interrupted be encouraged to resume their training."⁸

Some young men who entered military service were not completely deprived of higher education. College training programs conducted by the various military branches have sent nearly three hundred

⁸ Bernard M. Baruch and John M. Hancock, *War and Post-War Adjustment Policies*, Washington: American Council on Public Affairs, 1944, p. 49.

thousand men into institutions of higher education. This figure corresponds almost exactly with the reduction in male enrollments during the war years.⁶ But statistics must not be permitted to obscure a significant fact. The figures may be the same, but the individuals are not. Since students in the college training programs were selected by a special examination administered to eligible male high school students, many able but impecunious young men were given an opportunity for higher education which under ordinary circumstances they would have been denied. A number of these students, having begun a college education, will want to continue their studies after the war. The backlog of students, who, because of military service, were unable to enter college, or who had to leave before completing the requirements for a degree, will materially increase the normal inflow of students directly from the secondary schools.

The Army and Navy college training programs may have another more profound and lasting influence on college attendance. No country has ever attained the democratic ideal of giving each citizen as complete an education as his abilities and ambitions would justify. In recent years most American youth who have wanted to attend a secondary school have been able to do so, though even at this level certain non-academic selective forces have been at work. The democratization of educational opportunity at the lower levels of the school system has not yet been extended to higher education. Abundant evidence shows that economic barriers to higher education still prevent a large percentage of the youth of America from reaching their fullest intellectual development and consequently their greatest individual and social usefulness.

The individual and society have suffered immeasurable loss because college education has not been universally accessible. Studies of high school graduates in Ohio,⁷ Pennsylvania,⁸ and Kentucky⁹ show that college attendance is to a considerable degree based on economic

⁶ Raymond Walters, "Facts and Figures of Colleges at War," *Higher Education and the War*, Philadelphia: The American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1944, p. 8.

⁷ Herbert A. Toops, "Improving Selection at the Secondary School Level," *Current Issues in Higher Education*, Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, 1937, Vol. IX, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1937, pp. 83-84.

⁸ Harlan Updegraff, *Inventory of Youth in Pennsylvania*, Washington: American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education, 1936. (Unpublished.)

⁹ Horace Leonard Davis, "The Utilization of Potential College Ability Found in the June, 1940, Graduates of Kentucky High Schools," *Bulletin of the Bureau of*

factors. Toops found that among Ohio high school graduates at least fifty per cent of those economically unable to go to college had the intellectual ability to profit from college instruction, and a large percentage of those who did enter an institution of higher education could have been identified as academic failures before admission. The educational disorder and the social waste resulting from such an artificial selection of college students is obvious.

The college training programs of the armed forces have done much to reduce the social inequities in our present system of higher education. Since their primary purpose was the production of an adequate supply of highly trained military personnel, the military forces may not have had this long-run democratic objective in view. Yet, in selecting trainees, those were chosen who by nature and previous education seemed most likely to profit by such instruction, without regard to social or economic status. Many young men who under normal conditions would have discontinued their education at the end of high school were given varying amounts of additional education depending upon their abilities, interests, and the branch of service they entered. These programs maintained at public expense for a special military purpose will undoubtedly be discontinued when an adequate supply of trained personnel has been made available. But thousands of men and their parents have seen the advantage of higher education at the public expense for those who are able to profit from it. There will probably be an increasing demand for some form of public aid (in addition to financial aid to veterans) for worthy high school graduates who are unable to continue their education in the post-war period.

Evidence already exists that higher education will be made more generally available at public expense. A committee, appointed by the Regents of the University of the State of New York, to study the opportunities for higher education available to the youth of that state, has already recommended additional competitive scholarships for high school graduates.¹⁰ In addition to these scholarships, plans have been made for expanding the facilities of existing public institutions and for the establishment of others to serve the growing educational needs of the youth of the state. This further democratization of higher education in New York will cost several million

School Service, University of Kentucky (Vol. XV, No. 1, 1942), Lexington, Kentucky.

¹⁰ *Regents' Plan for Postwar Education in the State of New York*, The University of the State of New York, Albany: State Education Department, 1944, pp. 16-18.

dollars. Legislation has also appeared in the Congress providing higher education for veterans. At this writing no such bill has been passed, but it is generally agreed that some form of financial assistance will be made available to veterans who wish to begin or continue a college course. Each of the most widely discussed bills provides a specified period of education for all service personnel and additional educational opportunities for a limited group selected on the basis of ability. It appears probable, therefore, that higher education will be made more widely available after the war for both service personnel and the ordinary high school graduate.

In attempting to predict post-war college enrollments another social innovation must be taken into consideration. For the first time in the history of this country, and perhaps of any other nation, men and women in military service have been given an opportunity to continue their high school or college education while the nation is at war. Each branch of the service conducts a program of off-duty education providing a comprehensive variety of instruction. Over a hundred thousand men and women have already enrolled in courses offered by the Education Branch of the Army, the Educational Services Section of the Navy, and the Marine Corps and Coast Guard Institutes. These agencies provide both specialized instruction related to military activities and non-technical courses such as mathematics, English, foreign language, and American history. Off-duty enrollments in all services increase at a rate of more than twenty-five thousand a month. Since comprehensive descriptions of these in-service educational opportunities have already been published, they need not be described.^{11,12} It is pertinent to point out, however, that off-duty education will keep alive the intellectual interests of thousands of members of the armed forces. The value of this service cannot be appreciated without recalling that the vast majority of the men who discontinued their formal schooling to serve in the last war did not resume it at the end of the war. The high schools and colleges of the country have agreed to appraise educational achievement during military service and to grant appropriate credit for genuine educational accomplishment. Inquiries among men now

¹¹ Herbert G. Espy, Lt. Col. A.U.S., "The Correspondence-Study Program of the United States Armed Forces Institute," *Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions*, Vol. XV, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1943, pp. 27-36.

¹² Earl J. McGrath, "The Off-Duty Education Program of the United States Navy," *The Educational Record*, Vol. XXVI (January 1944), pp. 35-47.

in active military service reveal that from ten to fifteen per cent expect to continue their education after the war, and many of these are already anticipating requirements for diplomas and degrees through off-duty courses. If these off-duty programs cause even a small percentage of military men and women to continue their college education the expenditures involved will be many times justified.

The evidence is clear that in the absence of a major disaster or revolutionary social change one of the most serious problems the colleges will face in the post-war years will be that of absorbing an unprecedented number of students. Many college presidents who customarily spend most of their time in the exhausting and worrisome task of corraling students will consider this statement a paradox. It is a paradox, for increased enrollments under post-war conditions may not be an unmixed blessing. College students after the war will not be exactly like their elder brothers and sisters of a decade ago; nor will the economic and social milieu of colleges be similar to that of pre-war America.

The colleges face the difficult task of assimilating thousands of veterans of myriad educational backgrounds, interests, abilities, and vocational objectives. If these institutions had only to evaluate systematic off-duty education, the problem would be relatively simple, but service men will have had an infinite variety of educative experiences both formal and informal. More than half of all officers and enlisted men will have had advanced technical training beyond basic training or indoctrination. Much of this work will be of distinct academic value. Others will have learned the languages and the cultures of foreign lands. These are but a few of the variations in the education of returning service men which will require readjustments in college programs. If academic institutions are to provide their students with appropriate instruction, the uneven character of their previous education must be taken into consideration.

This wide variety of educational backgrounds will affect colleges in four ways. First, special facilities will be required to evaluate such education as the student may have had in service. Tests and other instruments of evaluation used for this purpose must be based not only upon the student's educational experiences, but also upon the objectives of the program he elects. Some service men, for example, will return to America with a knowledge of Chinese or Arabic. The educational value of this facility with a foreign language can be determined only in relation to the curriculum in which the student

expects to enroll. Should the boy who has learned Chinese be permitted to submit such accomplishment for credit in a course in electrical engineering? This question can only be answered after the faculty decides whether knowledge of a foreign language, or more specifically an oriental language, may properly constitute an element in an electrical engineering curriculum. If an affirmative decision is reached, the candidate must then be examined to determine how much Chinese he knows, and credit awarded in terms of his actual achievement.

This extreme example of the difficulties involved in evaluating educational achievement during military service was chosen deliberately to dramatize the serious responsibility which institutions must assume for providing adequate testing facilities. This statement is not intended to imply that all institutions must prepare examinations, or other means of appraisal, in every field in which credit is to be given. The testing service of the Armed Forces Institute has made tests of general educational development and of many specific subjects available to members of the military forces who wish to have their educational achievements assessed before, or at the time of, their return to civilian life. Many comparable examinations are also supplied by other agencies and academic institutions.

Problems of evaluation will be particularly challenging for colleges which administer comprehensive examinations at the end of an entire college course. These examinations have customarily not been based entirely on the mastery of a well-defined body of subject matter. They attempt to measure such abilities as the capacity to take a given problem and analyze it, to marshal evidence bearing upon the issues involved, and to reach a defensible solution through sound and objective reasoning. The student is not called upon to recall large bodies of subject matter. Instead he is required to demonstrate that he has mastered the habits and skills of intellectual workmanship. These comprehensive examinations vary from institution to institution, and frequently a special examination is prepared for each student in accordance with the pattern of subjects he has studied. Colleges having such a program will want to continue to administer examinations suited to their own student clientele.

But whether an institution uses its own tests or others, the task of appraising educational progress will be greatly magnified in the post-war period. One may hope that the progress of recent years in attempting to assess genuine educational growth will not be replaced

by the "pole sitter" theory of educational evaluation under which he who sits the longest gets the most credit. The easy way to award credit to a returning service man will be to add up the number of hours he has spent under instruction and to divide by the number a particular institution requires a student to spend in class for one hour of credit. The amount of educational development can thus be determined by a simple arithmetical operation which any clerk can perform. It is surprising, but true, that some educators have proposed this procedure for appraising the in-service education of military personnel. Fortunately, many institutions have announced that they will follow the more difficult, but sounder, practice of trying to evaluate service education in terms of development toward genuine educational objectives. It is encouraging to see that some institutions are making an effort to maintain educational standards while giving the service man full credit for real intellectual achievement. One distinguished educator sets forth the philosophy of evaluation in his institution in the following words:

"Examinations should be so generalized that academic recognition could not be obtained by merely totaling up grades in unrelated courses. In short, students should be admitted on the basis of their ability, regardless of academic bookkeeping, and they should proceed from one educational stage to another and finally be graduated in terms of what they know and what they can do, regardless of academic bookkeeping."¹³

Institutions wishing to make a fair appraisal of the educational growth of men and women who have served in the war will begin at once to plan for the inauguration of adequate testing facilities in terms of their own educational goals.

After a value has been placed on the education of returning service men, the school must assume a second responsibility. Prospective students must be helped in selecting the type of program which, considering their abilities, interests, and educational development, they may be expected to pursue successfully. Ex-service men with widely different preparation will require expert educational and vocational counseling if they are to be placed in courses congenial to their tastes and inclinations. Guidance facilities will have to be better than those now generally available in colleges of liberal arts. The urgent need for trained personnel to advise post-war students is

¹³ Robert M. Hutchins, *The State of the University*, The Alumni Bulletin, Chicago: The University of Chicago, November, 1943.

indicated by the recent appointment of committees, representing educational institutions, government agencies, the military forces, and industry, to study the need for guidance officers in the post-war years, and to develop plans for training such officers for the various types of agencies requiring their services.

Guidance officers in academic institutions should be familiar with the various types of technical and general education available to military personnel. They should also understand the meaning of scores on aptitude and achievement tests especially as they may be predictive of success or failure in further education or in a vocation. Such officers should be able to assist prospective college students in analyzing their own strengths and weaknesses and in choosing a course of study in which they have a reasonable chance of success. Much injustice may be done if students are not given competent professional advice regarding their educational and vocational objectives. A number of colleges have provided guidance for their students through professionally competent counseling officers. Many others, however, have relied upon inexperienced members of the faculty who have been given the responsibilities of student counseling as collateral duty. Often they possess no special qualifications for this work and are not familiar with the large body of esoteric knowledge at the basis of sound vocational and educational guidance. A personnel system which rests on this weak foundation is likely to collapse under the weight of responsibility imposed by the varied character of post-war students.

A third readjustment which the colleges should make is related to admission standards. Thousands of American youth were called to military service during the last year of their high school careers. Many of these young men will complete the requirements for a high school diploma before leaving military service. Already, hundreds have written to their high school principals and to the educational branches of the armed services, asking how this can be done. They want to know whether off-duty education and the courses completed in the technical service schools will be accredited by high schools and colleges. As a result of recent meetings of professional bodies, arrangements are being made for the appraisal of such work. Hundreds of persons will undoubtedly be granted high school diplomas on this basis before they leave the armed services.

If these men who have continued their education during military service are to be admitted to colleges on an equitable basis, admission standards must be modified to give the prospective student whatever

credit he deserves without impairing the educational standards of the institution. The courses presented by military personnel will often vary considerably from the traditional high school pattern. Fortunately, educational research of the past decade has demonstrated that the types of courses pursued in the high school have little relation to success in college. The quality of educational achievement is a much more reliable predictive index of college success than is any particular pattern of high school courses. Institutions will wish to bear these facts in mind in adjusting their admission standards to the needs of returning service men. A flexible system of admission combined with a searching examination program will guarantee the student fair treatment with no damage to the standards of the institution.

Lastly, the curriculum should be capable of easy adaptation to individual differences in previous training. Institutions which insist that students take courses covering broad fields of knowledge will be requiring many to go over again what they have already learned unless sections of such courses can be replaced by work completed in service. For example, a pharmacist's mate will find very little information in a general biology course which he doesn't already know. Likewise, a radioman, first class, will profit little from courses in elementary mathematics and physics. These are only two illustrations of the curricular readjustments which must be made if the student is to use his time effectively. Curricular requirements should be sufficiently flexible to permit the development of programs suited to the needs of the individual.

Returning service men will be eager to complete their education as rapidly as possible. They will be impatient with procedures and requirements which they consider arbitrary and wasteful of their time. They will gravitate toward institutions which have recognized the peculiar needs of service men and provide facilities to take care of them. These are some of the internal adjustments which institutions of higher education will have to make in the post-war period if they are to accommodate the thousands of service men who will be eager to complete their formal schooling. Forward-looking institutions will begin to make the necessary adjustments in their administrative organization, their curricula, and their staffs before the war ends, for many service men, who for one reason or another are unfit for further military service, are already returning permanently to civilian life.

There is increasing evidence that these academic readjustments will be complicated by financial problems. Since 1929 most colleges and universities have lived through a period of severe financial stringency. It appears likely that the fiscal problems of the depression years will be intensified during the post-war period. A distinguished American educator has said that the "whoopie" period in higher education, with its fabulous additions to endowment and plant, ended in 1929. That this is true is shown by an examination of endowment figures for private institutions of higher education. The volume of additions to permanent capital has decreased steadily during the past fifteen years. In 1919-20, 10.9 per cent of all private benefactions was for current purposes and 78.0 for permanent funds. By 1937-38 the former percentage had risen to 33.5 and the latter had dropped to 47.9.¹⁴ These figures reveal a growing inability or unwillingness on the part of Americans to contribute to the permanent funds of academic institutions. An examination of the causes for this change in the philanthropic practices of people of means will make possible a prediction concerning the probable future support of higher education from this source.

The great reduction in personal fortunes through the stock market crash of 1929, and subsequent impairment of capital, dried up the normally large annual flow of gifts to academic institutions. Wealth normally available for philanthropic purposes was held to maintain an established standard of living. New drains on financial resources such as income, inheritance, and miscellaneous federal and local taxes, further reduced the ability and the willingness to give. Through the thirties, therefore, colleges encountered increasing difficulty in maintaining their endowments. Writing in 1937, one prominent student of the investment problems of institutions of higher education commented on the dismal prospects of increasing endowment in the following words:

"But, as in the case of income from tuition fees, income from endowment holds out little hope of increasing in the near future. At the moment the tendency is exactly opposite."¹⁵

Unfortunately, as additional endowment became more scarce,

¹⁴ J. Harold Goldthorpe, "Trends in Philanthropy," *Journal of Higher Education*, Vol. XII, No. 2 (February, 1941), p. 75.

¹⁵ John Price Jones, "Factors Affecting Income," *Journal of Higher Education*, Vol. VIII, No. 4 (April, 1937), p. 186.

interest rates on invested funds dropped sharply, and many institutions were unable to increase endowment funds sufficiently to offset the resulting loss in income. The total income from endowment, therefore, continued to fall. The increased taxes incident to the war and investment uncertainties have further restricted philanthropy. Only the rare institution can expect to add materially to its total income from endowment in the post-war years. Prof. John Dale Russell of the University of Chicago, after exhaustive study of the problems of post-war financial support of higher education, comes to the following conclusion.

"Both because of the probability of lower rates of income on investments and also because of the improbability of substantial increases in endowment capital, it must be concluded that higher education cannot depend on the earnings of invested funds for increased support in the postwar period."¹⁶

The financial outlook for private institutions of higher education in the post-war period does not appear to be bright unless entirely new sources of income can be tapped, or unless students are required to pay a much higher percentage of the cost of their education.

The financial plight of the publicly supported college or university is not much more encouraging. It is true that since the last war state and municipal universities have received large sums from the public purse. In recent years, however, the demands of other public services have increasingly competed for funds from the public treasury. Groups of citizens interested in the improvement of state highways, the extension of the public health service, and the expansion of public parks, have organized themselves to secure a larger proportion of tax funds. Since the depression, the competition for public resources has also been intensified by unemployment insurance, old-age pensions, and other forms of social security. There is no reason to expect any marked reduction in the cost of these investments in social welfare. When the expenses of the war and post-war rehabilitation are added to the already heavy tax burden, it seems probable that support for any purpose, including higher education, will be difficult to obtain. Even if the national income remains high, which many economists and business men believe possible through continued large scale production and full employment, the amount of tax money

¹⁶ John Dale Russell, "Problems and Prospects of Postwar Financial Support," *Higher Education and the War*, The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 231 (January, 1944), p. 143.

available for the support of higher education may be limited. At this very time of decreasing income, both public and private colleges and universities will be asked to absorb the largest enrollments in history.

The significance of increased enrollments, accompanied by a stationary or falling income, cannot be fully appreciated until the fact is recognized that except in proprietary institutions students pay only a portion of the cost of their education. The difference between the actual cost of educating each student and the amount he contributes in tuition fees comes from private contribution or from public funds. Every student added to the total student body of a given institution at once imposes an additional financial burden. Hence, if the resources of the institution are not increased through taxes, private gifts, or income from endowment, some form of qualitative deterioration must occur in the educational program.

In the mad scramble for students during recent years, the fact that each additional student was a financial disability often went unnoticed. This apparently irrational behavior is explainable. First, it has unconsciously been assumed that the size of classes could be increased. A subtle increase in the size of classes, with a consequent increase in expenses for additional faculty, teaching facilities, and administrative overhead, goes on unobserved in the average institution. If the reliable techniques of the cost accountant are applied to college and university finance, however, it is clear that each additional student increases the operating cost of the institution. Any attempt to improve the financial condition of an institution by absorbing new students into existing classes is doomed to failure in the long run.

Often student bodies were increased, in spite of the recognized increase in the total cost of institutional operation, on the assumption that financial support could be secured to offset the increments to the budget incurred by a constantly expanding student body. Thus the annual report of college presidents commonly opened with a prideful reference to an increased enrollment since the last report, enumerated the additions to staff and physical plant required to accommodate the newcomers, and closed with the statement that this continued growth necessitated additional financial support for the maintenance of the traditionally high standards of the institution. A wealthy America responded by pouring millions of dollars into the treasuries of colleges and universities to offset the financial deficits caused by ever mounting enrollments.

The practice of increasing tuition fees has decreased the financial

burden caused by increased enrollments. A comprehensive study of the cost of higher education reveals that in 1919 the average tuition fee was \$121.00 in private institutions of higher education and \$49.00 in public institutions. By 1932 these figures had risen to \$289.00 and \$124.00 respectively.¹⁷ But the student not only pays more for higher education than his father had to pay twenty-five years ago; he also pays an ever increasing percentage of the total cost of his education. This has been particularly true since 1920. The persistent tendency to add students, and to multiply curricula to suit their varied needs, has indirectly caused an absolute as well as a relative increase in the cost of education to the student. The proportion of the total cost of education borne by the student has risen from 25.1 per cent in 1919-20 to 29.8 per cent in 1929-30,¹⁸ and to 32.0 per cent in 1942.¹⁹ In some institutions income from tuition fees accounts for from eighty to ninety per cent of the total operating expenses. The social implications of this increasingly common practice of requiring the student to pay a large part, if not all, of the cost of higher education need not be reviewed at this point. Whether it is desirable to lay the full burden of the cost of higher education on individuals, or whether society should assume part or all of the cost, can only be decided in terms of a basic social philosophy. Private colleges and universities ought, however, to be concerned with the practical consequences of this policy, for it will unquestionably drive many impecunious but intellectually superior students from private institutions with high tuition rates to publicly supported institutions where the cost of education more nearly suits their purses. Hence, any immediate value that may be inherent in such a plan will be offset in the long run by restricting enrollments to students from the upper levels of society, or by reducing the general quality of instruction.

Large enrollments will offer institutions the opportunity to select students with more discrimination than has ever before been possible. If reduced additions to capital, and consequently to income, are to place limitations on the amount of money available, other than that received from tuition fees, it will be well for institutions of higher

¹⁷ John Bernard Goodwin, "Trends of Student Fees in Colleges and Universities Since 1860." An Unpublished Dissertation, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1934, p. 25.

¹⁸ John Dale Russell, "Student Fees as a Source of Support," Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1933, Vol. V, p. 226.

¹⁹ The United States Office of Education, Cir. No. 223, 1943.

education to consider how what is available can be used to the best advantage of the student, the institution, and society. This will require a re-examination of the purposes and practices of colleges and universities.

Since the last war college curricula have multiplied with astonishing rapidity. This elaborate growth of course offerings has by no means been limited to large universities. An examination of the catalogues of a number of small colleges reveals that before the war the number of different courses offered in many such institutions was greater than the number of students in the freshman class. While the resources of the institution could be constantly increased, this policy of multiplying courses and curricula, even though unsound, could be continued without apparent damage to the total educational program. The opportunity to increase the size of the student body in the post-war years may cause many institutions to multiply academic offerings without the additional support necessary to sustain them.

It would appear, therefore, that institutions of higher education ought to reduce the scope of their objectives and use whatever additional income good fortune may provide in improving the quality of the programs they do offer.²⁰ In determining a feasible program the general objectives of the institution, the probable income for succeeding fiscal periods, and the proximity and character of neighboring institutions should be taken into consideration. In considering the objectives of higher education, studies of the educational needs of the young men and women of America will provide much valuable factual information. Studies made by the American Youth Commission show that the majority of American occupations require very little specialized preparatory education. Two-thirds of the vocations followed require no training which cannot be given on the job. Another twenty-five per cent require from several weeks to six months of specialized training. Only about one person in every eight, therefore, needs highly specialized instruction like that given in engineering colleges, medical schools, and technical institutions. If these figures even approximate the truth, an important inference can be drawn concerning the character of higher education in America. The time available for additional years of schooling should be spent in courses of general education rather than in technical courses of

²⁰ For a scholarly interpretation of the function of higher education in a society no longer capable of unlimited expansion see: Lewis Mumford, "The Social Responsibility of Teachers and Their Implications for Teacher Education," *The Educational Record*, Vol. XX, No. 3 (October, 1939), pp. 471-499.

instruction. The colleges may therefore reduce their present elaborate offerings without harming their students and without impairing their contribution to American society. Such a limitation of the range of their objectives will be accompanied by a commensurate drop in the per capita cost of instruction through an increase in the size of classes, a reduction of expensive equipment, and a decrease in general overhead expenses caused by the multiplication of departments, divisions, and schools.

An estimate of income from all sources will reveal the amount of money which can be spent on each student. Using this financial information a budget can be prepared in terms of the emphasis which the objectives of the institution indicate should be given to various aspects of the total educational program. As income increases, it should be possible to strengthen those departments which are weakest by improving the faculty, or augmenting physical facilities, such as libraries and laboratories. The resources of institutions in a given region can be further increased through collaboration. Notorious cases of duplication of effort exist in institutions of higher education. Frequently a half dozen institutions within easy communication of one another duplicate costly instruction. Some notable attempts have been made at the co-operative elimination of such duplication, but much more can be done to the advantage of students and institutions.

The plan here suggested for the limitation of enrollments, selective admissions, and controlled development in terms of definite educational goals, is based on a qualitative concept of education. It implies that institutions will study their potential resources and their probable student clientele and attempt to offer the best possible educational program for a limited group of students instead of elaborating curricula in the hope of being able to serve every conceivable candidate for higher education. A number of colleges and universities have already limited admissions to students of specified interests and abilities. These institutions are mainly of superior quality. A selective admissions policy, combined with a policy of using additional resources in improving existing courses of study rather than adding new programs, has resulted in a high quality of graduate. Such institutions are making a large contribution to American life. Their alumni enjoy distinction both in academic circles and in the world outside. The survival of all American colleges will depend in large measure on their ability to produce this type of intellectually distinctive graduates.

Scholastic Achievement of Students Entering College from the Lowest Quarter of Their High School Graduating Classes

IRWIN A. BERG, ROBERT P. LARSEN, AND WILLIAM M. GILBERT

REGISTRARS and academic counselors have frequently been perplexed by the problem of the student entering from the lowest quarter of his high school class. Tuttle¹ and Seyler² have shown that only 13 per cent of the students entering the University of Illinois from the lowest quarter of their high school classes receive college degrees. Of those entering from the highest quarter 50 per cent receive college degrees. Behind such percentages is the very real problem of embittered students dropped for poor scholarship and their disappointed parents. Yet correlation and other studies provide no final answer for any given student as to whether he is one of the successful 13 per cent or of the unsuccessful 87 per cent.

At the University of Illinois, an attempt has been made to give special treatment to such lowest-quarter students. These students are required to take a battery of psychological tests given by the Personnel Bureau of the University. They are allowed to take as few as 13 hours of classroom work or even fewer if given permission by the dean of their college. Each lowest-quarter student has an individual conference with a Personnel Bureau counselor in which his academic schedule of courses is planned and specific weaknesses in his high school preparation or in other areas are discussed. The counselor will frequently recommend that the student postpone enrolling in certain courses for a semester or more because he believes the student is likely to experience difficulty. If the student scores low on various portions of the psychological tests, the counselor will interpret the test scores for the student and suggest a remedial program when possible. Reading comprehension and speed of reading, for example, can frequently

¹Tuttle, G. P. "The Predictive Value of Rank in High School Graduating Class." *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, 12: 111-118, January, 1937.

²Seyler, E. C. "The Value of Rank in High School Graduating Class for Predicting Freshman Scholarship." *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, 15: 5-22, October, 1939.

be improved; hence the student with reading difficulty can be referred to a reading specialist. A similar referral for special help can be made for students with poor study habits. The student may be discouraged from entering a curriculum in which standards of achievement are high, as the premedical course sequence. Also, vocational information relating to jobs which do not require college training may be outlined for the student if he appears interested. Finally, the lowest-quarter student is admitted to the University on scholastic probation. This means the student can be dropped for scholastic reasons after one semester's work if he fails to maintain satisfactory grades.

It would be highly desirable if the counselor could strongly emphasize, could he do so with near certainty, that a given student was likely to fail. This would eliminate many of the painful scenes with parents as, "They never told my son he couldn't get through. Only *now* they tell me!" The aim of this study is to analyze data on lowest-quarter students and seek a means of predicting which individuals are destined for academic failure, even if only a portion of the failures can be predicted.

Test and achievement data for 79 lowest-quarter freshmen in the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences are compared with 461 College of Liberal Arts and Sciences freshmen who were not in the lowest quarter. Both groups were tested in October, 1943. The total number of lowest-quarter freshmen tested was 93; however, 6 failed to enter the University and 8 withdrew for military service before earning grades. There were also 10 other students who withdrew for military service; these were nevertheless included in the group of 79 because they earned grades in one or more courses.

DISCUSSION

From the data presented in Table I, it is clear that the lowest-quarter group studied scores significantly lower than the regular group of students on all psychological tests. Also, while taking significantly *fewer* hours of classroom work, the lowest-quarter group earned grades which were significantly lower than those earned by the regular admission group. Only 15 per cent of the lowest-quarter students earned grades above the all freshman grade point average of 3.178 while 61 per cent of the regular L.A.S. college group earned grades above this average. Thus even when the lowest-quarter students were given a lighter academic load and selected courses, their average scholastic achievement was poor.

RESULTS

TABLE I

COMPARISON OF TEST SCORES OF REGULAR AND LOWEST QUARTILE ADMISSIONS IN THE COLLEGE OF LIBERAL ARTS AND SCIENCES

Tests ^a	Regular Admission L.A.S. N=461		Lowest Quartile Admission L.A.S. N=79		Critical Ratio
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	
A.C.E. Q-Score	44.9	10.3	36.1	11.3	6.9
A.C.E. L-Score	68.7	14.6	54.4	15.1	8.3
A.C.E. Total	113.7	22.1	90.6	22.9	8.9
I.S.R. Rate	35.5	7.0	32.0	7.3	4.0
I.S.R. Comp.	172.0	28.9	130.9	30.1	11.4
H.S.C. English	40.8	11.4	29.0	10.9	9.9
H.S.C. Math.	24.3	11.1	14.8	7.3	9.8
H.S.C. Soc. Sci.	38.2	9.4	29.4	8.5	8.4
H.S.C. Gen. Sci.	24.3	8.1	17.5	7.4	7.5
H.S.C. Total	127.9	32.3	90.8	28.9	11.0
Coop Mech. Exp.	107.5	26.4	78.1	29.0	8.9
Composite ^b	521.6	92.3	301.0	95.3	11.8
Grade Point ^c Average	3.4	0.9	2.2	0.9	10.1
Hours of Classroom Work	13.4	2.6	10.3	3.1	8.1

^a A.C.E.=American Council on Education Psychological Examination. 1940 College Edition, Washington, D. C. This test has a quantitative (Q), linguistic (L), and total score. I.S.R.=Iowa Silent Reading Test. Advanced Form AM, 1939, World Book Co., Chicago. Test has rate of reading and reading comprehension scores. H.S.C.=Iowa High School Content Examination. Form B-1, 1925, University of Iowa, Iowa City. Mech. Exp.=Co-operative English Test A; Mechanics of Expression. Form Q, 1940, Co-operative Test Service New York.

^b Composite: This score is a summation of all test scores—A.C.E. total, I.S.R. comprehension, H.S.C. total and Mechanics of Expression total.

^c Grade weighting: A=5; B=4; C=3; D=2; E=1.

The basis for dropping students from the University, placing them on probation, or removing from probation is largely determined by the grades earned. Thus the grade point averages of dropped and of probation students should be expected to increase in Table II as they do. The average test scores also increase progressively from the group of lowest-quarter students who were dropped through to those who were removed from probation.

The data presented in Table III may be interpreted as demonstrating that the lowest-quarter group in this study achieved, as a group, approximately what one would expect from the test data. The lowest-quarter group scored about one S.D. below the mean of the regular group on the psychological tests and earned grades about one S.D. below the regular group grade point average. When the mean grade

of 7006 freshmen in all colleges who composed the entering classes of 1935, 1936, and 1937 is used, the lowest-quarter group still scores 1.2 S.D. below this mean.

By inspection, a critical score was fixed. This was a raw score of 90 on the A.C.E. test and 395 on the composite of all tests. These scores were the 20th and 16th percentiles respectively on the Univer-

TABLE II
TEST SCORES AND GRADES OF LOWEST QUARTILE STUDENTS DROPPED,
KEPT ON PROBATION, AND REMOVED FROM PROBATION*

		A.C.E. Total	Composite Score	Grade Point Average
Dropped N=29	Mean S.D.	85.3 25.6	366.2 66.7	1.5 .4
Kept on Probation N=22	Mean S.D.	93.9 24.0	413.1 89.8	2.2 .5
Probation Removed N=18	Mean S.D.	99.8 17.4	436.5 91.3	3.4 .7
C.R. Dropped and Probation Removed		2.3	2.4	9.9
C.R. Dropped and kept on Probation		1.2	1.7	4.9
C.R. Kept on Probation and Removed from Probation		.9	.8	6.1

* Ten students withdrew for military service. No action as to removal of probation or dropping was recorded for these 10 students. C.R. is the critical ratio.

sity Liberal Arts and Sciences college norms. Twenty-two students scored below both these critical scores, 25 had one score above and one below, and 32 students had both scores above this critical level. Of the 22 students who scored below this critical level, only one earned a grade average above 3.00 (above straight C). This single exception was a student who withdrew for military service and received only one hour's credit. He received one hour of "B" and 13 hours of "W" (withdrew). It may be said with some justice that one hour's grade is not a valid index of performance and that this single exception might ordinarily have been omitted on this ground.

TABLE III
SUMMARY OF LOWEST-QUARTER GROUP PERFORMANCE

S.D. Below mean of regular group composite score	1.4
S.D. Below mean of regular group A.C.E. total score	1.0
S.D. Below mean of regular group grade point average	1.3
S.D. Below mean of 7006 freshmen ⁷ grade point average	1.2
Per cent L.Q. group scoring above all freshman grade point average	15.2%
Per cent regular group scoring above all freshman grade point average	61.3%

⁷ Seyler, E. C. "The Value of Rank in High School for Predicting Scholastic Achievement in College." *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, 16: 123-133, January, 1941. Grade point average for 7006 Illinois freshmen found to be 3.178 with S.D. of .81.

Table IV summarizes the academic disposition of these 22 students who scored below the critical level on the test battery. A slight elaboration is required in explaining why two students were removed from probation although they did not earn a 3.00 or above grade average. The dean of the college makes the decision as to whether a student shall be dropped, placed on academic probation, or removed from academic probation. Several factors, in addition to the grade

TABLE IV
DISPOSITION OF LOWEST-QUARTER STUDENTS WITH REFERENCE
TO CRITICAL SCORES

	Both Scores Below Critical Level		One Score Above and One Below Critical Scores		Both Scores Above Critical Level		Total ^a	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Dropped for Scholastic Reasons	11	50.0	7	28.0	11	34.4	29	36.7
Withdrew from University	2	9.1	7	28.0	1	3.1	10	12.7
Kept on Probation	7	31.8	6	24.0	9	28.1	22	27.8
Removed from Probation	2	9.1	5	20.0	11	34.4	18	22.8
Total	22	100.0	25 ¹	100.0	32	100.0	79	100.0

^a Disposition of regular group: 5.2% dropped; 6.6% withdrew; 20.5% placed on probation 67.7% remained off probation.

point average itself, guide the dean in making such decisions. For example, under certain circumstances one student might be placed on probation and another with the same grade point average might not. The student who was not placed on probation may have had several "B's" and have failed a five hour course. This would suggest to the dean that the student could do acceptable college work in some

subjects at least. The other student may have earned no "B's" but have had largely "D's". Similarly, if one student had a low average for 19 hours of college classes and another student had the same average for 10 hours of course work the dean might place the latter on probation and merely insist on a lighter schedule for the former. Other factors considered by the dean are whether or not the student was absent because of illness during the semester, whether the student was partly self-supporting and is willing to reduce the number of hours he works for such support, etc. These, and similar considerations, applied to the two students scoring below the critical level who were removed from probation although they earned a grade average below "C".

If the college counselors could have used the critical scores with this group, they could justifiably have prepared these 22 students for their academic fate, since none of the 22 made a grade average above "C"—the military withdrawal case excepted. The counselors could have offered to discuss non-college training or vocations which do not require a college degree. This would have prepared the students for the difficulties they later encountered. It would not, of course, have applied to those who scored above the critical level and failed nonetheless.

At present, it is unlikely that more than a few students would heed a counselor's suggestion that plans other than those involving college training be considered. The most frequent rationalization met by the counselor is, "I loafed in high school. When I get in college, I'll really study." But it might be expected that if the counselor were able to predict accurately even a portion of the lowest-quarter group failures, future college generations of such students might be more willing to alter plans for college. To achieve this latter end, the counselor would have to follow up students who were expected to fail. Also, high school principals and other officials should be kept informed of the accuracy of such predictions.

Further studies are needed, not only of other lowest-quarter groups but also studies covering several years' instead of one semester's work. Other areas which relate to achievement should also be investigated. For example, personality characteristics and motivation might provide fruitful fields for research. In the former area, preliminary studies of students at this University who have taken the Multiple Choice Ror-

schach⁹ indicate that slightly maladjusted students, as measured by the Rorschach test, earn higher grades than those who are either better or more poorly adjusted. It is planned to complete this study and to extend the lowest-quarter study over a longer period.

SUMMARY

A study was made of 79 Liberal Arts college freshmen who were in the lowest quarter of their high school graduating classes. This group was compared with 461 Liberal Arts college freshmen who were in the upper three-quarters of their graduating classes. It was found that the lowest-quarter group earned significantly lower grades than the regular group and that their performance on a battery of psychological tests was also significantly lower. The lowest-quarter group was approximately one standard deviation below the mean of the regular group in grades and in test scores. It was found that 22 students of the 79 scored below an arbitrarily determined critical level of 90 raw score on the A.C.E. test and 395 raw composite score. Of these 22, 21 earned less than a 3.00 (less than C) grade average. The single exception was a student who withdrew for military service and earned only one hour's college credit, one hour of "B". Thus it was possible in this specific group to predict certain of the failures with considerable accuracy. Other studies using the Multiple Choice Rorschach test are suggested.

⁹ Harrower-Erickson Multiple Choice Test, Rev. Ed. June 1943, Pub. by Harrower-Erickson.

Future Possibilities for Graduate and Professional Instruction for Negroes

CHARLES E. ROCHELLE

RECENT renewed efforts on the part of the Negroes in the states of Kentucky and Missouri to make it possible for Negroes to enter the Universities of Kentucky and Missouri respectively, by legislative action, indicate that future possibilities for graduate and professional education for Negroes in the post-war period in states having separate schools for colored and white students should be of current interest.

The following assumptions¹ in regard to this subject appear to be valid.

1. There is probably no Southern state that will deliberately disregard the United States Supreme Court decision in the Gaines case.
2. It seems probable that the practice of educational segregation in the South on all levels will continue for an indefinite period.
3. It is not very probable that Negroes will be admitted to higher educational institutions in the South in large enough numbers to meet the increasing needs of the race for graduate instruction and professional training.
4. It appears that there will be a growing demand by Negroes in the South for graduate instruction and professional education in the immediate future and for several years to come.

ADMISSION OF NEGROES INTO STATE UNIVERSITIES OF THE SOUTH

In the Southern states, Negroes are required by law² to attend separate schools set apart for them. Legal bases for separate schools in the South are summarized in Table 1. The table shows that in nine of these states, Negroes are required to attend separate schools by constitutional provision only; in three states Negroes are required to attend separate schools by legislative statute only; and in six states

¹D. O. W. Holmes, "The Future Possibilities of Graduate Work in Negro Colleges and Universities," *Journal of Negro Education*, Vol. VII, No. 1 (Jan. 1938), p. 5.

²Doxey Wilkerson, "Special Problems of Negro Education," Staff Study #12, Prepared for *The Advisory Committee on Education*, Washington: United States Government Printing Office, p. xvi.

Negroes are required to attend separate schools by both constitutional provision and legislative statute.

TABLE I
LEGAL BASES FOR SEPARATE SCHOOLS IN SEVENTEEN SOUTHERN STATES
AND THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA¹

States	Separate Schools by Constitutional Provision Only	Separate Schools by Legislative Statute Only	Separate Schools by Both Constitu- tional Provision and Legislative Statute
Alabama	x		
Arkansas		x	
Delaware			x
District of Columbia ²		x	
Florida	x		
Georgia			x
Kentucky			x
Louisiana	x		
Maryland		x	
Missouri			x
Mississippi	x		
North Carolina	x		
Oklahoma	x		
South Carolina			x
Tennessee	x		
Texas			x
Virginia	x		
West Virginia	x		
Total	9	3	6

¹ Data from State constitutions and codes of school laws of these states.

² See Senate Document No. 58, 70th Congress, 1st Session, entitled "Public School System, District of Columbia." Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1928.

Southern tradition also serves as a barrier to the entrance of Negroes in graduate and professional institutions in the South supported by public funds. Holmes³ says,

From the viewpoint of the Negro, it would seem a very simple thing for Southern states to allow a few selected Negro students desiring to do graduate and professional work to enter the universities already established without endangering the social equilibrium of that area. The

³ D. O. W. Holmes, "The Present Problems Involved in Graduate and Professional Training for Negroes in the South," *Proceedings of the Sixth Annual Meeting of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for Negroes*, Durham, N.C., December 7-8, 1939, pp. 36-43.

present generation of white Southerners, however, seems unready to agree to this proposition, fearing that such a procedure would be a very dangerous wedge which might finally crack the Southern tradition asunder.

Caldwell⁴ states,

Conceivably the publicly supported universities of the South might admit Negroes as students on the same basis on which white students are admitted. There are many who believe that from such a course of action, unfortunate consequences would follow. Many thoughtful persons feel that the adoption of this policy at the present time would be against the best interests of the Negroes themselves.

Thompson⁵ states,

First, it is possible that some states will admit Negroes to the regularly-constituted graduate and professional schools previously attended only by white citizens. Obviously, the states in which this situation is most likely to obtain are the border states of Maryland, Missouri, Kentucky and West Virginia; and, we have some reason to hope, Delaware, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia.

It is significant to note in this regard that only last year a Negro graduated from the Law School of the University of Maryland, after being admitted on Court order, and we had neither a race riot nor even discrimination against the young Negro who was admitted.

Clement⁶ makes the following statements:

Some state or states will admit Negroes to the graduate and professional schools operated now for the members of the non-Negroid races. I would suggest the states where this is most likely to occur in the near future, but for the possible embarrassment of the authorities of those states.

And Jackson Davis⁷ says,

I have sometimes been asked when Negro students would be admitted into the graduate and professional schools of Southern universi-

⁴ Harmon W. Caldwell, "Graduate and Professional Instruction for Negroes," Southern University Conference, *Proceedings, Constitution and By-Laws, Addresses and Reports* (Atlanta, Ga., 1939), p. 93.

⁵ Charles H. Thompson, "The Missouri Decision and the Future of Negro Education," *Journal of Negro Education*, III, No. 2 (April, 1939), p. 135.

⁶ Rufus E. Clement, "Legal Provision for Graduate and Professional Instruction for Negroes in States Operating Separate School Systems," *Proceedings of the Fifth Annual Meeting of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for Negroes* (Tallahassee, Florida, 1938), p. 116.

⁷ Jackson Davis, "Discussion of Graduate and Professional Education for Negroes," Southern University Conference, *op. cit.*, p. 99.

ties. My answer was that it might occur when those universities became primarily graduate institutions, rather than undergraduate institutions. When the same set of circumstances prevails in some Southern universities that now prevails in some of the Northern universities with more mature students, we have no reason to think that they will react differently. Our universities do not want to be sectional. We have ideals for our universities just as we have ideals of human rights.

In regard to the attitude of white student bodies of graduate and professional schools in the Southern states concerning the admission of Negroes of these schools, Wesley^a says,

The admission of Negroes to the graduate schools of the state universities for white students has received recent consideration. Support has been given to this proposal by the action of the white student bodies in several of these schools. At the University of North Carolina, a poll of student graduate opinion was taken in which one out of every four graduate students participated. The vote resulted in a poll of 120 ballots out of a possible 405 students registered. Of this number, 82 students were in favor of the admission of Negroes to the University's Graduate School and 38 were against their admission. It is reported that over 86 per cent of these students are from Southern States. This poll was repudiated by the student *Daily Tar Heel* as inaccurate. Another poll conducted by the Carolina Political Union showed an overwhelming opposition and an opinion contrary to the first vote. There were 387 against and 51 for the admission of Negro students. A student organization of the University of Missouri has also voted to approve the admission of Negro students. Some of the students of the University of Kentucky are reported to be willing to accept Negro students. The admission of a Negro to the University of Maryland and his ready acceptance by the white students are indications of the trends of student views. There are similar individual indications of the same attitudes in other states. Student opinion, however, does not entirely control the situation. There are State laws which have been upon the statute books of the States for years providing for the separation of the races in education. The mores of the States concerned have established this separation in the public mind. It will take several years for the eradication of the attitude. The older minds in control of the legislatures and universities are going to move more cautiously than the younger ones. However, the maintenance of the dual system of education is already a heavy burden for the Southern states.

^a Charles H. Wesley, "Graduate Education for Negroes in Southern Universities," Reprint from *Harvard Educational Review*, vol. 10, No. 1 (January, 1940), pp. 90-91.

INSTITUTING GRADUATE AND PROFESSIONAL DEPARTMENTS IN ALL
THE STATE COLLEGES FOR NEGROES OR IN THE LAND
GRANT COLLEGES FOR NEGROES ONLY

Instituting graduate and professional departments in all the state colleges for Negroes in the South or in land grant colleges for Negroes only is another suggestion which has been made to provide graduate and professional education for Negroes in the South. Several prominent white and Negro educators⁹ have discussed the institution of graduate and professional departments in all the state colleges for Negroes or in the land grant colleges for Negroes only.

Caldwell¹⁰ says,

There are two obvious objections to the adoption of this policy. In the first place, this would be a most expensive procedure from the standpoint of the states: in the second place, it would probably result in the setting up of graduate and professional schools of a very low grade.

Cox¹¹ states,

The third case is exemplified by the graduate schools in Texas and Virginia . . . creditable graduate education is inevitably expensive; in some cases, it is many times as costly as undergraduate work. To attempt graduate work without adequate provisions will mean either a sacrifice of undergraduate instruction or disreputable graduate work or both. This scheme of "authorizing" a school to open up graduate instruction is probably the most insidious method of a state's living up to its obligations. Through it, every Negro State College in the South could be changed into a graduate school by obtaining more or less "authority" to do graduate work.

Holmes¹² states,

It is difficult to believe that it will be academically healthy for schools which have just arrived at competency in offering adequate curricula leading to the Bachelor's degree to rush into the business of providing

⁹ Charles E. Rochelle, "Graduate and Professional Education for Negroes," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, vol. 19; No. 2 (January, 1944), p. 204.

¹⁰ Harmon W. Caldwell, *op. cit.*, p. 93.

¹¹ Oliver Cox, "Provisions for Graduate Education among Negroes, and the Prospects of a New System," *Journal of Negro Education*, IX, No. 1 (January, 1940), p. 30.

¹² D. O. W. Holmes, "The Future Possibilities of Graduate Work in Negro Colleges and Universities," *Journal of Negro Education*, Vol. VII, No. 1 (January, 1938), p. 6.

graduate and professional education on any considerable scale. And yet, if the states controlling the public colleges for Negroes are willing to provide the necessary funds, I see no alternative other than to attempt to develop these schools to the best of our ability. I believe that we should resist to the utmost the creation of makeshift graduate and professional schools, and that we should say clearly and unequivocally to those in charge of affairs in the Southern states that they must remember that the Supreme Court repeatedly uses the word "equal" in the Gaines decision. I have faith enough in the good sense of the Southern leaders and in their ultimate good will to believe that they will respect us the more for reminding them.

In this connection Wesley¹³ says,

From all indications, these additions to the Negro colleges may be of the makeshift variety unless the fair-minded citizens of the State are active in demanding equality of opportunity in fact. State support for the undergraduate work in these colleges has been far below the needs, so that their undergraduate work is by no means equal to the standard of the colleges for white students. It would take thousands of dollars and trained faculty members in large numbers to bring these institutions up to the place where they would be rated on the same Class A rating as the State institutions for whites. The Negro graduate faculty member faces the additional obstacles of inadequate libraries and laboratories and the barrier of race in the Southern States. The addition of graduate work through the appropriation of a few thousand dollars to these schools would be a travesty upon the purpose of graduate study. It would seem to be far better for the Negro colleges to dedicate themselves to the raising of the standards of their undergraduate work than to turn to the inadequacy presented by legislative enactment for a graduate school.

McKinney¹⁴ concludes that we must "provide graduate and professional courses at one or more of the existing state-supported schools for Negroes on a definite equality with that offered to whites."

Clement¹⁵ says in this connection,

Some state or states will not admit Negroes to the graduate and pro-

¹³ Charles H. Wesley, *op. cit.*, p. 92.

¹⁴ T. E. McKinney, et al, "Report of Commission on Institutions of Higher Education," *Proceedings of the Sixth Annual Meeting of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for Negroes* (Durham, North Carolina, 1939), p. 34.

¹⁵ Rufus E. Clement, "Legal Provisions for Graduate and Professional Instruction for Negroes in States Operating Separate School Systems," *Proceedings of the Fifth Annual Meeting of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for Negroes* (Tallahassee, Florida, 1938), p. 116.

fessional schools now open to other people but will attempt to establish separate facilities, chiefly in connection with an existing state-supported institution for Negroes. One state legislature is reliably reported to have answered the ultimatum of the Gaines decision by providing a chair of law for Negroes at the state school for members of the race. Another state Assembly is reported to have voted to establish two graduate schools for Negroes, without making any appropriation for the operation of these schools. The poverty of the South suggests that no state in the entire area is actually able to provide separate and equal graduate and professional facilities for the education of its two major racial groups. Many attempts to do this will therefore necessarily be inadequate, and some of them will be in the nature of tragic subterfuges trying to satisfy the letter of the Gaines decision.

Johnson¹⁶ says,

Taking into account the high cost of providing real graduate study, the reluctance of the legislatures to underwrite this cost, the relatively small number of Negro students who will want to pursue graduate study in a particular state, and the necessity of first ironing out some inter-institutional wrinkles within certain states, I am inclined to believe that it is unwise to push at present for the addition of graduate departments to the state colleges for Negroes.

Wilkerson¹⁷ in discussing the South's ability to support its educational program has this to say:

In order to provide a minimum defensible program of education for both the white and Negro populations, there would be required, for current expenses and capital outlay, an annual expenditure of over 800 million dollars for public elementary and secondary schools in these eighteen states. This sum is 140 per cent of the total amount of money these states as a whole could have raised in 1935 by a uniform tax plan designed to measure the ability of State and local governments to support all social functions of government, and is 83 per cent of the amount these states could have so raised in the more favorable year of 1930 by the same tax plan.

STATE UTILIZATION OF PRIVATELY CONTROLLED INSTITUTIONS FOR NEGROES WITHIN THE STATE

State utilization of privately controlled institutions for Negroes within the state has also been mentioned as a possible solution of the

¹⁶ Guy B. Johnson, "Graduate Study for Southern Negro Students," *Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Meeting of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for Negroes* (New Orleans, La., 1937), p. 46.

¹⁷ Doxey A. Wilkerson, *op. cit.*, p. 58.

problem of providing graduate and professional education for Negroes in the South. This possibility is applicable to states like Georgia with its Atlanta University Center and Tennessee with its Fisk University and Meharry Medical College.

CO-OPERATIVE ACTION BY FACULTIES OF UNIVERSITIES FOR THE
MAINTENANCE OF SEPARATE GRADUATE COURSES FOR
NEGRO STUDENTS OUTSIDE OF OR WITHIN THE
STATE OR PRIVATE UNIVERSITY

Experiments are now being made in shifting professors in state universities to certain graduate classes for Negroes in the Negro institutions within the states. Some educators have suggested this procedure as a possible solution for the problem of providing graduate and professional education for Negroes in the South. Faculty members from the University of North Carolina and Duke University are now co-operating with faculty members of the North Carolina College for Negroes at Durham and the North Carolina Agricultural and Technical College for Negroes at Greensboro in offering graduate and professional courses at these institutions.

REGIONAL UNIVERSITIES

Dr. Guy B. Johnson of the University of North Carolina was probably the first to suggest regional universities as a possible means of providing efficient graduate and professional education for Negroes in the South. The plan has also been suggested by others. Since the Supreme Court decision in the Gaines case makes it mandatory upon the state to provide equal educational facilities for its citizens within the state, it is obvious that regional universities would not meet the requirements of the decision rendered by the Supreme Court on this matter.

SCHOLARSHIPS FOR OUT-OF-STATE STUDY

Although scholarships for out-of-state study do not meet the requirement of the Supreme Court's decision in the Gaines case, this method of providing graduate and professional education for Negroes in the South has been mentioned by a number of educators in their writings.

Since Missouri passed legislation to provide scholarships for out-of-state study for Negroes in 1921, several other states have passed

legislation providing similar or identical educational opportunities.¹⁸

According to Reid E. Jackson,¹⁹ ten southern states have announced plans for awarding financial aid to Negroes for out-of-state study. These states are Arkansas, Maryland, Missouri, Kentucky, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia.

In Arkansas, Kentucky, Oklahoma, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia, scholarship funds for out-of-state study are administered by State Boards of Education. The Trustee Board of the Negro State College administers these funds for the states of Maryland, Missouri, and North Carolina. Texas has placed its scholarship funds for out-of-state study in the hands of an administrative committee composed of deans of graduate schools in the various white colleges.

Basic requirements for scholarship aid, amount of the grants, and scope of the grants vary in the ten states awarding scholarship aid for out-of-state study.

Since the inception of this program, \$1,165,854.92 has been expended by Southern states in tuition scholarships for Negroes pursuing out-of-state study, but the average sums allotted per student do not appear to be adequate in most instances.

SUMMARY

1. There are legal bases for separate schools in the Southern states. In nine states there are provisions in the constitutions only which serve as legal bases for separate schools; in three states legislative statutes only serve as legal bases for separate schools; and in six states Negroes are required to attend separate schools by both constitutional provisions and legislative statutes.

2. Southern traditions and the attitude of students serve as barriers to keep Negroes from attending graduate and professional institutions supported by public funds in most of the Southern states.

3. Opinions of educators vary in regard to the wisdom and probability of permitting Negroes to attend graduate and professional schools in Southern universities now attended by white students only.

4. From data presented, it is to be noted that there are some white

¹⁸ Oliver C. Cox, "Provisions for Graduate Education Among Negroes and the Prospects of a New System," *Journal of Negro Education*, vol. IX (January, 1940), p. 23.

¹⁹ Reid E. Jackson, "Financial Aid Given by Southern States to Negroes for Out-of-State Study," *Journal of Negro Education*, vol. XIII, No. 1 (Winter, 1944), pp. 30-39.

students in Southern universities who are not averse to attending graduate and professional schools with Negro students.

5. The methods most generally discussed for providing graduate instruction and professional education for Negroes in the Southern states are as follows:

- A. Admission of Negroes into state universities.
- B. Development of Graduate departments in all the state colleges for Negroes or in the Land Grant colleges only.
- C. Creation within existing institutions for white students of new divisions for Negro students.
- D. Scholarships in privately controlled institutions for Negroes within the state.
- E. Co-operative action by faculties of universities for the maintenance of separate graduate courses for Negro students outside of the state or private university.
- F. Establishment of regional universities.
- G. Provision of scholarships for out-of-state study.

6. The development of graduate departments in all the state colleges for Negroes or in the land grant colleges only, admission of Negroes into state universities and the provision of scholarships for out-of-state study are the methods for the provision of graduate and professional study for Negroes in the Southern states most freely discussed.

7. The poverty of the South suggests that no state in the entire area is actually able to provide separate and equal graduate and professional facilities for the education of its two major racial groups.

8. The faculties of the University of North Carolina and Duke University are co-operating with the faculties of the North Carolina College for Negroes and the North Carolina Agricultural and Technical College for Negroes in providing graduate and professional education for Negroes within the state of North Carolina.

9. It appears that the setting up of regional universities in the South will not meet the requirements of the Supreme Court decision in the Gaines case.

10. Out-of-state scholarships as awarded by Southern states for providing graduate and professional education for Negroes vary in amount, scope and administration and do not meet the requirements of the Supreme Court decision. The average sums allotted per student do not appear to be adequate in most instances.

Old and New College Board Scores and Grades of College Freshmen

CHRISTIAN O. WEBER

"Failing the possibility of your measuring that which you desire, the lust for measurement may, for example, merely result in your measuring something else—and perhaps forgetting the difference—or in your ignoring some things merely because they cannot be measured."¹

THE AIM of the following study is to compare the predictive values of the pre-war June examinations of the College Board with the new April Achievement Tests initiated in 1942. The measure of predictive value will consist of correlations (r 's) between scores of the entrance tests in question and average academic grades earned by college freshmen. I will compare such correlations from four years of pre-war tests with two years for which (so far) data regarding the April tests are available. Before submitting the results of the study it is important to be sure that the r 's for the two periods were made under comparable and constant conditions.

My r 's are entirely between scores from single-subject examinations of the College Board and average freshman grades. The average grades derive from five basic courses (six hours each) taken by every freshman at Wells College throughout the year. In the few instances in which students took two one-semester courses (of three hours each) such grades were averaged and the two courses thus treated as one. To be sure, r 's between *single-subject* entrance scores and average grades will be smaller than r 's between composite scores of several entrance tests and grades. It is a well-known fact, however, that measures of ability in quite different areas of study tend strongly towards positive correlation. Thus, I find that grades from specific college freshmen courses give r 's ranging from $+.50$ to $+.73$ with average sophomore grades in subjects *other than* the freshman course in question.² We need not be concerned here with the question of whether such tendencies to positive correlation are due to general,

¹Yule, G. U. "Critical notice on William Brown and Godfrey H. Thomson's *The Essentials of Mental Measurement*, *Brit. J. Psychol.*, 1921-22, 12, 100-107.

²Weber, C. O. "Comparative values of college entrance examinations," *School and Society*, 1942, 55, 247-251.

specific, or group factors of mental ability or of personality traits: all three types of factors are now quite generally acknowledged. The r 's used in this study thus rest on the assumption that separate test scores of the College Board measure factors which are common to the entrance tests and college freshman courses. Correlations based on single entrance tests are of special value in that they enable us to compare predictive values of various entrance tests.

The New York State Regents' and College Board scores used in this study were not weighted for the number of units covered by them, and all scores on a given subject (such as French 2, 3, or 4) figure in the same r . This procedure is justified for pre-war College Boards, since their averages were adjusted to 500. The matter is less determinate for the recent April tests, in which the same test is given to candidates having varying units of preparation in a subject. It was hoped to design the April tests so that they would measure basic capacities rather than acquired information in a subject. That this aim was not realized is indicated by the finding that candidates with 2, 3, or 4 years of preparation earn correspondingly higher average scores in the language tests of the new April series. Nevertheless, since the April tests were designed to measure calibre in a subject reliably despite variations in units of preparation, I propose to measure the success of this venture by again using April scores of testees with 2, 3, or 4 units of preparation in a given subject in the same r with average freshman grades. Where retests occur for the same units of a subject the first score earned was used in the r because second or third scores are unduly increased by special coaching and by practice effect. However, of several test scores on the same subject the one representing the largest number of units was used in the r .

College Board Tests. Section A of Table I gives the average r 's between C. B. scores from specific subjects and average freshman grades for four pre-war years (1937-1940 inc.). The three columns of figures from left to right give respectively: the average number of cases on which each average r is based, the average r 's (each one derived from four separate r 's), and the average probable errors of the r 's. Section B gives comparable data for the 1942-43 April Achievement Tests (except for English not given); and section C gives corresponding data for 1943-44. Section D averages the data from sections B and C, thus making possible a comparison of the April tests for two years with pre-war tests for four years.

TABLE I
CORRELATIONS OF C. B. SCORES AND FRESHMAN GRADES

Sec. A. Average r 's of Old C. B.'s for Four Years (1937-1940 inc.)			
Scores Corrected with Grades:—	Av. N	Av. r	Av. P.E. r
1. Physics and Chemistry	31.0	.363	.107
2. English	59.5	.403	.074
3. French	47.0	.468	.079
4. History (all types)	32.0	.587	.078
Averages for four years:	42.4	.455	.085
Sec. B. April Achievement Scores and Grades, 1942-43			
5. Physics and Chemistry	24.0	.461	.108
6. French	29.0	.079	.124
7. Social Studies (History)	43.0	.467	.119
Averages for 1942-43:	32.0	.336	.117
Sec. C. April Achievement Scores and Grades, 1943-44			
8. Physics and Chemistry	21.0	.263	.136
9. English	67.0	.178	.118
10. Social Studies (History)	35.0	.302	.103
11. French	36.0	.421	.137
Averages for 1943-44:	39.7	.291	.124
Sec. D. April Tests, Averages for Two Years (Sec. B and C Above)			
	36.4	.310	.121

It is apparent that the agreement between C. B. scores and average grades of freshmen is less for the new April tests (average $r = .310$) than for the pre-war tests (average $r = .455$). This is partly because the new April tests are shorter (one hour each) and are taken by the candidates before the completion of the courses involved, and because students with different amounts of preparation take the same examination in a given subject.

Fortunately, a college may make use of tables supplied by the College Board giving the average scores obtained in different subjects and for different units of preparation in a subject. This makes it possible to equate and average the various entrance scores of a testee. It is my privilege to submit r 's between such average entrance scores and freshman grades prepared by Dean Evelyn C. Rusk of Wells College.³ Each C. B. score of a candidate, who for instance took French on the basis of two years of preparation, was divided by the average score earned by all testees who also took the test on the basis of two units (as reported by the College Board). If such weighted

³ With the kind permission of Dean Rusk.

entrance scores are averaged for each candidate and correlated with average freshman grade point scores ($A = 5$, $B+ = 4$, etc.) the results are as follows:

Year	N	r
1942	42	.414
1943	67	.494

As expected, these values are larger than C. B. r 's in Table I. In the actual practice of personnel work with college freshmen it is useful to form quintile groups on the basis of average entrance test scores, and study the average grades earned by such quintile groups. The r 's between the average entrance scores and average grade points of such quintile groups (used as units) was $+.922$ in 1942 and $+.848$ in 1943.

Regents' Tests. Scores of the Regents' tests appear to be somewhat superior to College Board tests as predictive instruments. Table II gives the average r 's of Regents' scores with average Wells freshman grades for the same four years (1937-1940 inc.) covered by Table I for C. B. tests. Each one of the average r 's of Table II is derived from four r 's, one from each year concerned; and scores from tests covering various units of preparation were again used in the same correlation.

TABLE II
REGENTS' SCORES AND FRESHMAN GRADES FOR FOUR YEARS

Scores Correlated with Grades:	Av. N	Av. r.	Av. P. E. r
1. Geometry	52.0	.379	.079
2. History	53.5	.435	.079
3. English	54.0	.483	.070
4. Algebra	52.5	.542	.066
5. Physics and Chemistry	35.0	.561	.073
6. French	46.0	.578	.065
7. Latin	52.0	.696	.049
Averages for four years:	47.1	.514	.072

* These averages include only the data for physics and chemistry, English, French, and social studies—to make comparisons with Table I possible.

S. A. T. and A. C. E. Scores and Freshman Grades. Table III gives the r 's of these tests with average freshman grades for each of six years. Where scores for both verbal and mathematical sections of S. A. T. were available (as for 1942 and 1943) the average of the

two was used for the purposes of correlation. For the A. C. E. Psychological Examination the sum of the Q and L scores was used.

TABLE III
S. A. T. AND A. C. E. SCORES AND FRESHMAN GRADES

Sec. A. S. A. T. Scores and Average Freshman Grades			
Years	N	r	P.E. r
1937-38	74	.440	.062
1938-39	54	.440	.072
1939-40	36	.490	.085
1940-41	34	.408	.096
1942-43	44	.643	.069
1943-44	68	.387	.069
Averages:	51.7	.468	.075
Sec. B. A. C. E. Scores and Average Freshman Grades			
Year	N	r	P. E. r
1937-38	92	.603	.045
1938-39	71	.452	.060
1939-40	60	.538	.060
1940-41	71	.332	.071
1942-43	44	.629	.061
1943-44	75	.152	.076
Averages:	68.8	.451	.062

As a summary, we may draw up a final evaluation of various entrance criteria for the college gleaned from previous tables. The various entrance tests considered, given in the order of their value as predictive devices, are as follows:

TABLE IV
ENTRANCE TESTS IN ORDER OF AGREEMENT WITH FRESHMAN GRADES

Test Batteries	Years Studied	Av. r with Grades
1. Regents' Examinations	4	.514
2. Scholastic Aptitude Test	6	.468
3. C. B. Old Type Examinations	4	.455
4. A. C. E. Psychological Examination	6	.451
5. C. B. New "April Achievement Tests"	2	.310

It must be noted that the actual values of r 's between entrance test scores and average grades are probably larger than our tables indicate. For one thing (among many), because colleges reject candidates

with low entrance scores, correlations with grades are not based on the full range of scores, and this tends to reduce the sizes of r 's. Again, inadequate grading on the part of college instructors will attenuate r 's quite as much as inadequate entrance tests. In the third place, properly formed composite entrance scores show better agreement with grades, as the r 's prepared by Dean Rusk indicate.

The College Entrance Examination Board is, of course, not solely or chiefly responsible for the change from the standard June essay-type examinations to the new April Achievement Tests. Three colleges for men and seven colleges for women requested the change;⁴ and these colleges may, in their turn, blame the change on the war. The Board offers no categorical answer to the question of whether or not the regular June examinations will be restored after the war.⁵ My own limited comparison of the April Achievement Tests with the pre-war College Board Tests, based upon specific units of preparation in a subject and given *after* the completion of the courses concerned, suggests to me that the latter tests are superior and should be restored. Stated in terms of my initial citation from Yule, we must not forget and ignore the effects of giving the same test to candidates with different amounts of preparation for it.

⁴ Forty-Second Annual Report, C. E. E. B., 1942, 1 ff.

⁵ *Ibid.*, 5.

Available Sources of Teachers and What We Have Done to Explore Them

HARRY E. ELDER

INTRODUCTION

THE TRAGEDIES of war are not confined to the fighting fronts; their impacts upon civilian life are similarly immeasurable, incomprehensible, and elusive. The current global struggle has produced catastrophic cultural and educational effects not only upon the nations which are being defeated but also upon those which are winning. Even in our own United States the blight of World War II has dealt a staggering blow to the public school system and the teaching profession and cast a shadow—dark and ominous—upon the lives of unborn millions.

To understand and appreciate the significance of the preceding statements it is only necessary to survey the curative (?) measures which have been applied with respect to the teacher supply as it has changed from a very slight surplus in 1940 to a definite shortage in almost every field and on every level as early as the fall of 1942 and to a most alarming absence of available qualified teachers in September, 1944. As soon as it became evident that the problem was snowballing into one of Gargantuan proportions all sorts of proposals—some desirable, some undesirable, some hybrid in nature—began to appear from various sources. Among these suggestions were the following: drop from the curriculum such subjects as do not contribute directly to the production of war material; shorten the school day (or some other equivalent proposal—such as larger classes—) so that one teacher might instruct more pupils; lower standards for certification of teachers; increase salaries; recognize teaching as an essential occupation for winning both the war and the peace; accelerate college and university teacher training programs; employ greater numbers of married women; waive the retirement age; develop greater reciprocity in certification among the states; grant state scholarships to prospective teachers; organize FTA chapters; issue "emergency" permits; employ cadet teachers; etc. All of these proposals—and undoubtedly others—have been applied in varying degrees throughout the nation with results not too satisfactory to those interested in maintaining a high level of efficiency in public education.

SUMMARY OF STATE REPORTS

Thirty-three usable replies to a questionnaire submitted to each of the forty-eight state departments of education in July, 1944—received in time to report in this study—indicate what has been done on a nation-wide basis to maintain an adequate supply of teachers. There has been an average increase in salary of approximately 22 per cent, with a range from 10 per cent in one of the states of the southwest to 50 per cent in one of the New England States. Stated in other words, there has been an average increase of approximately \$20 per month on the basis of a year of twelve months. Even after the increases many states are depending upon mere pittances—less than \$800 per year—to attract men and women to become teachers of their children! There is no wonder that one such state reports a reduction of between 3000 and 4000 in the number of its teachers since December, 1941. Even the highest minimum salary of \$1800 has not been very effective in retaining teachers since the number of teachers in the state reporting this salary has decreased by 2500 since Pearl Harbor.

Accelerated programs of preparation, adopted by about 70 per cent of the states reporting, resulted in a mere postponement of the crucial shortage which now exists; such programs cannot produce either more or better teachers over an extended period of time—they can only result in more immature and more poorly prepared teachers being forced into the classrooms as a war emergency measure.

In addition to inadequate increases in salary and the accelerated programs of preparation at least four other practices—more or less national in scope—have been adopted since our entry into World War II: (1) All states, represented in this summary, report the employment of an increasing number of married women. (2) Slightly fewer than one-half of the states have no legal retirement age, or—if they have one—its provisions have been waived for the duration of the emergency. (3) With the exception of two of the thirty-three states reporting, the practice of issuing "emergency" permits is universal, ranging from 5 per cent to 40 per cent of all the teachers employed in a given state. (4) While no really *new* plans of recruitment of teachers have been developed, all *old* plans have been applied with renewed vigor. State scholarships have been offered; guidance activities have emphasized the need for teachers; much publicity to the need for teachers has been given through speeches, newspapers,

magazines, and radio broadcasts; the organization of FTA chapters has underscored the problem among students and others who were, by and large, already cognizant of the acuteness of the situation.

What would have happened to education had there been no special efforts to stop the exodus of teachers from the profession and to direct others into it will never be known; it can only be surmised on the basis of what has happened in spite of all efforts to hold the educational line. The best estimates at the present time indicate that approximately 150,000 "emergency" certificates will be issued for the academic year of 1944-45. At the same time it must be recognized that between 45,000 and 50,000 teaching positions—well scattered among the forty-eight states—have been or will have been discontinued before June, 1945. This means that there will be only about 80 per cent as many fully qualified teachers in the schools by the close of the current school year as there were in 1940, a total shortage of nearly 200,000 with the states divided almost evenly as to whether the greater shortage is on the elementary or secondary level. State directors of teacher training and certification report that, while there is a shortage in all fields on the secondary level, the conditions are most serious in mathematics, science, industrial arts, and other vocational and special fields while they are least acute in English and social studies.

AFTER PEACE COMES

"If the war ends in 1945, by what date do you anticipate an adequate supply of adequately prepared teachers in your state?" The replies to this question ranged all the way from 1945 to "later than 1955" with 1950 as the approximate median.

If we assume that the state directors were thinking in terms of the number of teachers needed in their respective states in 1940-1941, we must also assume that their answers did not take into consideration the increased birth rate which started just before our entry into the war and which will undoubtedly continue for several years after peace comes when millions of veterans will return to civilian life to marry and have children who will enter and progress gradually through the elementary school and into secondary schools and colleges. If the average increase in the birth rate for each of the eight years from 1942 to 1949, inclusive, should be approximately 250,000 above what it was in 1940, we must plan—without assuming a high

rate of infant mortality—to have enrolled in the public schools of 1955 about 2,000,000 more children than were in attendance in 1940. At the ratio of one teacher to twenty children this would require 100,000 more teachers by 1955 than were employed in 1940. This increased number of necessary teachers does not take into account the additional teaching burden in high schools, trade schools, and colleges which will result from the return to school of veterans themselves to continue their education under the provisions of the veterans' act approved on June 22, 1944; nor does it take into consideration the added teachers required to lengthen the period of education for the masses as necessary to increase the literacy, the industrial and agricultural production, and wise consumption on the part of our entire population.

If, after the war, approximately 50,000 teachers withdraw from the profession annually—as was true in the “normal” times preceding the war—this would add another 500,000 to the 100,000 additional teachers needed by 1955 because of the increased birthrate. Assuming an end of the war in 1945 and realizing that about four years are required to prepare a teacher after graduation from high school, it is evident that not much of a dent can be made in the teacher shortage before 1949. If, during the ten years beginning with 1949, an average annual production of 60,000 teachers—above net withdrawals and retirements—is maintained, it would take until 1959 to meet the requirements for 1955! Those who believe the teacher shortage will continue until “after 1955” may be our wisest prophets!

QUESTIONNAIRE SUBMITTED TO STATE DIRECTORS OF TEACHER TRAINING AND CERTIFICATION IN JULY, 1944

1. Approximately what has been the percentage of increases in teachers' salaries in your state since December, 1941: Please check (✓) figure most nearly representative of your state as a whole: 5%; 10%; 15%; 20%; 25%; 30%; 35%; 40%; 45%; 50%; 55%; 60%.
2. What was the minimum monthly salary in your state in December, 1941, for teachers with the Bachelor's degree? (a)
What is it now? (b)
3. Have the teacher training institutions of your state adopted some sort of an accelerated program since December, 1941, whereby prospective teachers may meet graduation requirements in less time than formerly?

4. Has there been an increase or a decrease in the percentage of married women employed to teach in your state since December, 1941?
5. Has the age for retirement of teachers been lowered, kept the same, or increased, since December, 1941?
6. Approximately what percentage of the teachers of your state during the year 1944-1945 will be teaching on "emergency" certificates? Check (✓) percentage most nearly representative: 0%; 5%; 10%; 15%; 20%; 25%; 30%; 35%; 40%; 45%; 50%.
7. In your state in what secondary field is the teacher shortage greatest? (a)..... Least? (b)
8. For your state please check (✓) on what level the teacher shortage is most acute. Elementary
Secondary
9. What, if any, new plan for the recruitment of young people for the teaching profession has been inaugurated since December, 1941?
.....
.....
10. Has the number of teachers in your state increased or decreased since December, 1941? Check (✓): Increased.....
Decreased..... By how many?.....
11. If the war ends in 1945, by what date do you anticipate an adequate supply of adequately prepared teachers in your state? Check (✓) the year which most nearly represents your considered judgment: 1945; 1946; 1947; 1948; 1949; 1950; 1951; 1952; 1953; 1954; 1955; later.

SUMMARY: STATE REPORTS ON TEACHER SUPPLY AND RECRUITMENT SINCE 1941

States Reporting	Replies by State Directors of Teacher Training and Certification to Eleven Questions Submitted										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	% of increase	Minimum salary (a) 1941 (b) now.	Accelerated program?	Increase or decrease in % of married women?	Retirement age changed?	% of "emergency" certificates	Teacher shortage (a) greatest (b) least in what fields?	Level of most acute shortage	New plans for recruitment	Increase or decrease in no. of teachers	When will teacher supply be adequate?
Ariz.	10%	(a) \$1035 (b) 1200	No	Increase	Same	15%	(a) L.A., Ag. (b) Eng., S.S.	Sec.	None	-75	1945
Ark.	25%	(a) \$ 570 (b) 750	Yes	Increase	Retirement Waived	25%	(a) Voc., Sci., (b) Math., P. Ed. (b) Eng.	El.	Refresher Courses	-3-4000	1952
Cal.	No Data	(a) \$1320 (b) 1500	Yes	Increase	Same			El.	None	+(?)	?
Col.	10% 15%	(a) \$1200 (b) 1200		Increase	Increased	15%	(a) Sci., Math.	El.	None	-100	?
Conn.	15%		No	Increase	Same	2%	(a) Math., Sci., Voc., P. Ed., (b) S. S., Eng., Lang.	Sec.	Scholarships Guidance	-10%	1948
Del.	20%	(a) \$1200 (b) 1450	No	Increase	No retirement law	10%	(a) L.A., P. Ed., Sci., Ag. (b) Academic	Sec.	None	-20	1950
Fla.	25%	(a) 600 & 850 (b) \$ 600 & 850	No	Increase	Same	25%	(a) Math., Sci., (b) Eng., S. S.	Same	Scholarships	- slight	1950 or later
Idaho	10%	No Schedule	Yes	Increase	No retirement law	20%	(a) P. Ed.	Same	None	-200	1948

SUMMARY: STATE REPORTS ON TEACHER SUPPLY AND RECRUITMENT SINCE 1941—Continued

States Reporting	Replies by State Directors of Teacher Training and Certification to Eleven Questions Submitted										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Ill.	20%	No. Schedule	Yes	Increase	Same	5%	(a) I. A., Com. (b) Eng.	El.	None	—2000	1947
Ind.	30%	(a) \$150 (mo.) (b) \$175 (mo.)	Yes	Increase	Retirement Waived	10%	(a) I. A., H. Ec. (b) Eng., S. S.	Sec.	None	— slight	"Later" (than '55)
Kan.	30%			Increase	Increased	20%	(a) Com., Math., Sci., I. A. (b) H. Ec.	El.	Publicity	—1000 to 1500	1950
Ky.	20%	(a) \$80 (mo.) (b) \$100 (mo.)	Yes	Increase	Same	40%		El.	None	—10%	1947
La.	Wh. 30.8%; Neg. 48.7		No	Increase	Lowered	5%	(a) Ag., Com., Math. (b) Eng., S. S.	Sec.	None	—475	1947
Md.	20%	(a) \$120 (mo.) (b) 140 (mo.)	Yes	Increase	Same	10%	(a) I. A., Sci., Math. (b) Eng.	El.	Cadet Teachers	—200	1951
Me.	50%	(a) \$100 (mo.) (b) 155 (mo.)	No	Increase	No retire- ment law	15%	(a) Eng., Com., Sci., Math., Lang., S. S. (b) Agr.	El.	Cadet Teachers	—131	1950
Mich.		No legal minimum	Yes	Increase	No retire- ment law	10%	(a) I. A. (b) S. S.	El.	None	+?	1952
Mo.	20%	No data	Yes	Increase	No retire- ment law	5%	(a) Sci. (b) S. S.	Sec.	None	—1000	1948
Miss.	30%	(a) \$75 (mo.) (b) 100 (mo.)	Yes	Increase	Same	"Don't issue"	(a) Libr. (b) S. S.	Sec.	None	—600	1950

SUMMARY: STATE REPORTS ON TEACHER SUPPLY AND RECRUITMENT SINCE 1941—Continued

Replies by State Directors of Teacher Training and Certification to Eleven Questions Submitted

SUMMARY: STATE REPORTS ON TEACHER SUPPLY AND RECRUITMENT SINCE 1941—Continued

States Reporting	Replies by State Directors of Teacher Training and Certification to Eleven Question Submitted										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
N. J.	10%	(a) \$1000 (b) 1200	Yes	Increase	Same	5%	(a) Sci., Math., I. A. (b) S. S., Mus.	Sec. Rural	Publicity	-5%	1950
N. Car.	15%	(a) \$96 (mo.) (b) 109.33 (mo.)	No	Increase	Same	Wh. 5% Neg. 0%	(a) Business (b) Eng.	Sec. Rural	None	-250	1947
Ohio	10%	No Schedule	Yes	Increase	Retirement Waived	15%	(a) I. A., P. Ed. (b) Eng., S. S.	El.	FTA and Publicity	-2000	1949
Okla.	20%	(a) \$120 (mo.) (b) 140 (mo.)	No	Increase	New law effective 1944	10%	(a) Math., Sci. (b) S. S.	Sec.	Lowering grad. standards	-1700	1947
Ore.	20%	(a) \$85 (mo.) (b) 133* (mo.)	Yes	Increase	Same	20%	(a) P. Ed., H. Ec., I. A. (b) Eng.	El.	Publicity	+250 "War influx"	1950
Pa.	10% -15%	(a) \$1500- 1600 (b) 1600- 1800	Yes	Increase	Same?		(a) Sci., Health, Voc. (b) Art., Eng.	El.	Publicity	-2500	1950
R. I.		(a) \$ 800 (b) 800	No	Increase	Same	5%	(a) Sci., Math., P. Ed. (b) S. S., Eng.	Sec.	None	-?	
Tenn.	35%	(a) \$ 90 (mo.) (b) 124.25 (mo.)	Yes	Increase	No retirement law	20%	(a) Sci., I. A., Math. (b) S. S., Eng.	El.	"Workshops"	Same	1949
Tex.	10%	(a) \$100 (mo.) (b) 110 (mo.)	Yes	Increase	Same	3%	(a) Math., Sci. (b) Eng., S. S.	Sec.	None	-25%	1949
Utah	20%	(a) \$600 (b) 960	Yes	Increase	Same (70)	25%	(a) I. A. (b) S. S.	El.	Publicity	-?	1950

Don't issue" (a) I. A. (b) S. S. Sec. None -600 1950

SUMMARY: STATE REPORTS ON TEACHER SUPPLY AND RECRUITMENT SINCE 1941—Continued

States Reporting	Replies by State Directors of Teacher Training and Certification to Eleven Questions Submitted										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Vt.	40%	(a) \$900 (b) 1200	Yes	Increase	Same	20%	(a) Voc. (b) Short in all	Same in El. & Sec.	"Every known method"	—?	"1955 or Later"
Wash.	30%	(a) \$1200 (b) 1500	No	Increase	Same	20%	(a) P. Ed., I. A.	El.	None	+166	
W. Va.	20%	(a) \$110 (mo.) (b) 145 (mo.)	Yes	Increase	Same	10%	(a) I. A., Math., Chem. (b) Eng., S. S.	El.	Publicity	-795	1947
Wis.	30%	(a) \$85 (mo.) (b) 133 (mo.)	Yes	Increase	Same	20%	(a) Sci., I. A., Ag. (b) S. S.	Sec.	Publicity	-3%	1950
W. y.	20%	(c) H. S. \$1610 El. \$1300 (b) Increased	Yes	Increase	Law Effective July 1, 1943	10%	(a) P. Ed., I. A., Com., Mus., Ag., H. Ec. (b) S. S., Eng.	Sec.	Publicity	-200	1947-1950
Average	22%	*	70% Yes 30% No	Increase 100%	56% Same 41% None or Waived 3% Lowered	14%	**	47% Sec. 40% El. 13% Sec. & El.	"None" to "Every" thing	Slightly over 1000 (Approx.)	1950 (Approx.)

* Approximately \$20 per month increase on basis of year of 12 months or \$30 per month on basis of school year of 8 months.

** Shortage in all fields: Greatest in Math., Sci., I. A., and Vocational Subjects. Least in English and Social Studies.

Physical Education Does Educate*

LEROY M. WEIR

WIDESPREAD use by the government of American colleges and universities as training centers for service men has resulted, among other things, in a tremendous increase in the amount of time devoted to physical activity. Trainees have been required to put in either five one-hour or three one-and-a-half hour periods a week. In many institutions similar participation is required of all civilian students unless excused by health service or because of exceptionally heavy study-work loads. This emphasis on physical education, or perhaps more truthfully on physical conditioning, has been the result of the acknowledged necessity of a high degree of physical efficiency among students in time of war, both as a preliminary to active service and as a preparation for arduous civilian tasks. Questions have been raised, and others doubtless will be raised, as to the effect which this war-time emphasis on physical training will have on the place of physical education in the college curriculum after the war. Some view the possible effects with hope, others with trepidation. Expressions of skepticism are already in evidence as to the wisdom of even a partial continuance of emphasis on what has been termed "so alien an intrusion into the educational scheme." Proof is asked in support of the claim that physical education results in definite betterment of the students. Some concede the potential values of college physical education, but maintain that worthwhile results are not being achieved due to poorly constructed programs or the use of poor instructional methods. Some want the physical education requirement increased in terms of college years, while others believe that the desired results could be achieved simply by a change of emphasis as to the type of program offered. Should physical education be on an entirely elective basis or should it be required? Or should it be offered as a combination of both? These problems are

* EDITOR'S NOTE: The JOURNAL for April, 1944, carried an editorial entitled "Does Physical Education Educate?" which raised certain questions that seem particularly pertinent under present conditions, and which had been sidestepped more effectively than they had been answered. In the belief that the other side of the question had a right to be heard, Mr. Weir was invited to reply to that editorial in the pages of the JOURNAL. His article is the response to this invitation.

by no means new. They have been discussed in a considerable volume of literature over a period of at least fifty years. They seem to merit reconsideration, however, in view of the experiences of the war, and even more because of the ever-changing concepts of the function of higher education in a highly dynamic American society. The solutions found for them will help to determine the effectiveness of the contribution which physical education will make in higher education after the war.

The question has been asked, "Does physical education educate?" Such a question might be considered redundant, or as coming from a confirmed critic of physical education, in view of the fact that almost all colleges and universities throughout the country have for many years included physical education among their requirements for graduation. It might easily be assumed that physical education educates, or else a great many institutions of higher learning have made a serious and longstanding error of judgment. However, there is no intention of treating the question thus lightly.

It will readily be seen that the question is not an easy one to answer. It would not be less difficult to answer a similar query addressed to the department of English, or history, or to any other department in the various areas of education. It is suggested that satisfactory proof of the ability of physical education to educate, would consist of comparative measurements of muscular development, of posture, of endurance, and "of other aspects of physical well-being." Muscular development, posture and endurance can be, and are being measured every day, but are such measurements, even when they show marked improvement, proof that physical education educates? How can "other aspects of physical well-being" be measured? Yet the very possession of such well-being is evidence of physical education having educated. What proof is available in support of the claim that a study of English, or of history, educates? Would it be found in the measurement of one's ability to spell, or to punctuate, or to remember dates, or the names of presidents? Or would the proof lie in the possession of an appreciation of literature, and of past and present culture? But how are appreciations to be measured?

So much, then, depends on what is meant by "educate." And even if agreement could be reached as to its definition, how is "education," whatever it may be, susceptible of measurement? Can the extent of

one's education be determined by the grades on his transcripts, by the degrees after his name, or by his income? Or do the evidences of education appear in less tangible forms such as the services one renders, or the happiness with which one lives?

Such considerations as these make it evident that one's answer to the question which has been posed will be determined to a great extent by his philosophy of education. It naturally follows that the attitude which an institution exhibits toward the educational possibilities of physical education has been determined, at least in part, by the philosophy of education held by the faculty as a whole. In other words, the place given to physical education in the curriculum will depend on the concept of the nature and function of higher education adhered to by that institution, both in theory and in practice. It is not begging the question to say that physical education educates or does not educate in a particular institution depending on whether or not the administration and faculty permit it to do so. The attitude of the administration and faculty are important affective factors. Consequently an understanding of the framework within which physical education operates is of sufficient importance to merit giving it brief attention.

As has been pointed out,¹ there are two widely contrasting positions as to the nature and function of higher education. The first of these holds that such education should be conducted for a highly selective group, for the development of the intellect, through detached consideration of the great truths in the history of knowledge. This is frequently called the "intellectual" position. The second view maintains that higher education should be available to all who wish it, to develop all the powers of the individual that will contribute to effective living in a democracy, through the relating of learning experiences to significant areas of current life experiences. This position is commonly designated as "functional." Between these positions there are, of course, many intermediate points of view. Undoubtedly a college operating under the assumptions of the "intellectual" position will either eliminate physical education entirely, or, at most, will assign to it the limited function of providing students with regular

¹ Louise S. Cobb, *A Study of the Functions of Physical Education in Higher Education*, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1943. See also *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, 19: 48-60, October, 1943.

exercise in the belief that their health will be maintained to carry on classroom studies. A college, on the other hand, which holds to the "functional" position, will, in all probability, find a more significant place for physical education in its curriculum in the belief that such education will assist in the development of the total personality of each student.

The classification of our institutions of higher learning with regard to their attitude toward physical education is not, however, quite this simple. Two factors serve to confuse the picture. The first is a conflict between theory and practice. In recent years our colleges have widely accepted, in theory at least, the "functional" concept of higher education. Attention to the maximal growth of the individual is an objective commonly stated in catalogues. In practice, however, the colleges have not always developed notable structures to give body to this idea. The stated objective may often be the all-round growth of the student, while the means used to attain such growth may continue to be based largely on the "intellectual" concept of higher education. This is due to the fact that many professors remain followers of the traditional subject-mastery theory and believe that the study to master subjects adequately cares for the growth of the individual. This conflict between end and means explains to some extent why physical education, although its objectives may be entirely compatible with the acknowledged objectives of a college, is, nevertheless, frequently denied a proper place in the curriculum.

Again, many colleges may adhere to the "functional" concept of higher education and yet not place physical education in a position of much importance in the curriculum, because of misconceptions on the part of the faculty as to the principal purposes of its program. Physical education is a comparatively new area of education and it is therefore not surprising that some misunderstanding exists as to its aims. Several misconceptions remain quite prevalent. Many people continue to believe that the primary aim of physical education is the development of muscular strength. Muscle tone and the ability to use muscles effectively are important qualities, but have little to do with the size of muscles. There is also a rather widespread belief that the primary aim of physical education is to make, and keep, people "healthy," meaning free from disease, by means of muscular exercise. There is no scientific basis for such a general claim. No professional person will longer encourage the belief that exercise will insure an individual against infection. Another misconception commonly found

is that the main purpose of physical education is to correct physical defects. It is true that certain types of defects are amenable to correction by means of appropriate muscular activities. With regard to the great majority of defects, however, the physical educator is well aware of the need for the services of the physician or surgeon, the dentist, the oculist, the dietitian or the nurse, rather than for the help of the educator.

These differing concepts as to the aims of higher education, differing opinions as to the best means of attaining the aims, and certain misconceptions as to the purposes of physical education, are among the important controlling factors which determine the degree of significance attached to physical education in our colleges, and they thus influence, in more or less degree, the total effectiveness of the programs.

The permanent place of physical education in higher education will, however, be determined by its intrinsic worth as an educational instrument. The remainder of this discussion will, therefore, be devoted to a brief statement of basic principles upon which programs should be built, to criticism of certain aspects of present programs, and to suggestions pertaining to programs of the future.

A physical education program must be based upon recognized educational principles. It is needless, here, to present even a summary of physiological, psychological and sociological principles which are now widely accepted in all education and upon which modern physical education is based. Yet two broad principles which seem to be essential to a truly functional physical education program need emphasis.

1. The activities must be selected and taught in terms of the abilities, needs and interests of each student.
2. The activities must be meaningful and must be so recognized by the students.

Certain practices not in accord with these principles have been allowed to continue in various areas of college physical education to such an extent that the evils resultant therefrom have, in the opinion of many people, overbalanced the beneficial results of the programs. Among the more common are:

1. Too close adherence, in many instances, to program activities based on European systems of gymnastics. The earliest American college physical education programs were inaugurated by pupils of Jahn. Frequent use has also been made of many Swedish and Danish gymnastic practices. These systems, admirably suited to the political

and social environment of their native lands, and containing, indeed, many inherent values, have constantly failed to hold permanently the interest of youth in a democracy. Easily and economically administered by a small staff to large numbers of students, they have too often been used with utter disregard of individual needs.

2. Carelessness in the teaching of what is called the "natural" program consisting largely of games and other play activities. This is exemplified by the "throw out the ball and let them play" attitude of some instructors, and has resulted in critics' being able to say with some justification that the physical education program consists largely of unsupervised and unplanned play.

3. Failure to furnish students with adequate skills in what might well be called the life sports, such as swimming, tennis, golf, handball, volleyball, bowling, and skating. By adequate skill is meant sufficient proficiency to give satisfaction in the playing of these sports. Lack of emphasis in many programs on such sports which can be used long after graduation gives partial justification to the charge that physical education claims much, but does little, with regard to preparation for leisure time.

4. Failure to teach adequate appreciation of the values of physical education and to relate these values to the life-goals of students. Without such instruction physical education may in actuality be merely physical training and be almost meaningless in many instances.

Analysis of these "shortages" reveals that some programs are not based upon immediate individual needs of students, nor do they emphasize those activities which will meet future needs. Furthermore, insufficient attention is given to bringing out a clear relationship between the purpose of particular program activities and a need on the part of the student for those activities. These deficiencies, either singly or collectively, are not to be found in all programs. They are prevalent enough, however, to merit attention, and it is believed that any steps taken toward their correction will do much to make college physical education more educative.

Looking to the future, it seems evident that college physical education needs more individualized programs. Admittedly this will be difficult where large numbers of students are involved, facilities limited, or staff undermanned. Nevertheless, there is reason to believe that, with careful planning, much more could be done in this direction with existing facilities and present staffs.

Students enter college with varying degrees of motor fitness, athletic skill, and sports knowledge and experience. There is little justification for assigning them all to the same required program. Many will be bored, others will be involved in activities beyond their ability. The evils of such mass movements in any area of education are well known. It is possible to construct and administer a program which will include activities suited to the needs, abilities and interests of each student. In brief outline, such a program would consist of six areas²:

1. Adaptive activities designed to meet the needs of those who, in the opinion of health service, would be best served through less strenuous activities.

2. Developmental activities designed to improve the motor fitness of those who need it.

3. Group-competitive activities suited to those who have had high school experience along such lines and who have an acceptable motor fitness score.

4. Life sports activities in which all students would participate after having taken part in the developmental and group-competitive activities.

5. A full schedule of intramural sports, participation in which would, under qualifying conditions, be accepted as a part of the physical education requirement.

6. An extensive number of varsity and freshman sports, participation in which would also be accepted as part of the requirement.

The developmental, group-competitive, and life sports areas would be the core of the program, but all students with sufficient ability would be urged to participate in intramural and varsity sports.

Classification of students for the various areas of the program would be based on information obtained from (1) a complete health examination given by college authorities; (2) a motor fitness test given at the beginning and end of each semester; (3) high school and other physical education experience; (4) a cumulative record of physical education achievement in college.

The office of the Physical Education Counsellor would secure and maintain all needed information and would assign each student to

² This program is based on an unpublished report of the Post-War Committee of the Department of Physical Education and Athletics, University of Michigan, 1944, J. Kenneth Doherty, chairman, of which the writer is a member.

the proper area of activity. A personal interview with the student should precede the assignment.

Such a program as has been briefly outlined would provide a wide variety of activities capable of meeting the individual needs of students. It would at the same time protect those of advanced physical development and skills from required participation in needless and therefore meaningless activities.

It would permit sufficient flexibility in its administration to meet a second need in college physical education: a more balanced program. Frequently the predominant part of a student's participation will be in but one or possibly two sports, or, in less frequent cases, it may be almost entirely in gymnastics. Allowing a student to meet the physical education requirement by playing basketball (to pick an example at random) to the almost total exclusion of other activities, would be somewhat analogous to permitting a major in history to study the history of but one nation. The particular activity engaged in so exclusively may have much value, but if physical education is to educate effectively, the student should have experiences in a fairly wide variety of activities of different types. The educative values of group games, for example, are somewhat different from those of the individual sports, while those of gymnastics differ to some extent from those of athletics. Under the suggested program all students who showed a need for developmental activities would participate in them. All students would take part in group-competitive contests, and all would receive instruction in some of the life sports.

The area last mentioned deserves additional comment, for it demonstrates in an effective manner the unbalanced nature of many programs. The major sports, football, baseball, basketball and track and field, have long occupied the dominant position in our programs. These sports have unquestioned value. Since, however, only a small proportion of college graduates continue to take part in such activities, at least equal emphasis should be given to those sports which are of value not only to the undergraduate, but are also suited to later adulthood.

The physical education program which consists of a wide variety of carefully selected activities designed to meet individual abilities and interests, and which is administered in such a way as to give each student an extensive yet balanced experience, will, it is believed, contribute much to students' growth, to their development, and to their ability to make adjustments. In short, such a program will con-

tribute to their education. The contributions may be summarized under four headings^a:

1. It contributes to the development and maintenance of bodily health. No one denies that big-muscle (strenuous) activity is essential to biological growth, and scientific studies show that college students are still in the period of maturation. The medical world has confirmed the beneficial results of physical activity on the vital organs of the body. Optimum exercise, in fact, is the best known means for the development of organic strength and power.

2. It assists in the development of sound mental health. In games the individual finds relaxation from strains and worries. He experiences self-expression. His mind is focused on objects outside himself. Through contact with other individuals in group activity he obtains an objective point of view, learns to co-operate with his fellows and to be at ease with them. In addition, confidence and leadership develop from the attainment of skills.

3. It provides wholesome recreation. Besides providing immediate healthful and wholesome recreation, physical education also inculcates permanent leisure-time interests which will carry over into adult life.

4. It contributes to the development of character or personality. Character or personality attributes are somewhat intangible in nature and therefore achievement toward them is difficult to measure.

In physical education the attainment of health is coupled with the achievement of purpose. The candidates for any athletic group soon realize that they must train and respect their bodies if they are to produce their maximum achievement. This is training in self-discipline. Then, too, there are standards of conduct that the contestant must learn to follow if he is to be a well adjusted member of his group. The laws of the game are on a small scale the laws of society. The experiences of co-operation, competition, and the gracious acceptance of both victory and defeat contribute to training of character. Athletic sports furnish a laboratory experience in which emotional self-mastery is demanded. It is reasonable to assume that an athletic contest with its hopes, its elation over victory, and its disappointment in defeat, helps to prepare for the emotional crises of life.

^a This summary is taken in part from an unpublished report of the Department of Physical Education, University of Michigan, 1941.

This is not to say that there will be a full carry-over from game situations to life situations. Desirable habits are developed which may, or may not, transfer to other situations, depending on the degree of recognized similarity between the two. Beyond doubt, undesirable habits are sometimes formed, as well, as is the case in any educational endeavor. But the evidence in support of athletics as an educational agency is strong, and should not be disregarded, even by those who infer that the whole structure is weak simply because one sport happens to provide a financial profit. One educator, while suggesting that many hypotheses about athletics may well bear further study, says, "Undoubtedly there are many advantages accruing from athletics. The Greeks developed a very high civilization with physical games and sport constituting about half the curriculum."⁴ Nicholas Murray Butler has paid tribute to the place of athletics in these terms: "The degree of A.B. is granted to those young men who meet the prescribed intellectual tests, and the degree of varsity "C" is awarded by competent authority to those who earn special distinction in some one of the manly sports and athletic contests . . . (both) represent activity and achievement which are an integral part of education in college."⁵

Whether physical education is required or elective need not affect its educative value. It has been said that any required course "inevitably comes to bear a deadly resemblance to other forms of penal servitude." Students are forced into it, therefore no effort is made to attract them, and, it is charged, instruction is all too often "routine, perfunctory, and unprogressive." On the contrary, the argument continues, a course offered on the elective basis must compete with other interests for its students and is, therefore, "not likely to go to seed." The argument seems rather specious that instruction in a required course will usually and automatically become worthless, while that in an elective course just as automatically sparkles with brilliance. Doubtless many cases could be found where the contrary is true in both instances. It is to be hoped that instructional motivation is on a higher plane than that of interdepartmental competition for students. In any case, it is the opinion of the writer that physical education should be required at least in the first two college years. This

⁴ Wm. Clark Trow, *Educational Psychology*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931, p. 376.

⁵ Nicholas Murray Butler, *Columbia Alumni News*, Vol. 18, Jan. 7, 1927.

does not mean that all students would be forced to participate in the same activities. In a program such as suggested above, elective choices could be made both in the group-competitive and in the life sports area, and of course participation in the intramural and varsity programs would classify as the equivalent of electives. There are two major reasons which seem to support the "required" viewpoint. College freshmen have exceedingly varied backgrounds in physical education. It is estimated that approximately fifty per cent have had no physical education worthy of the name. These men, with few exceptions (and these could be screened out with the aid of high school physical education records), need a required basic or developmental program for at least one semester. A second reason for a requirement is the abundant evidence available that many students will not secure proper amounts of exercise when left to their own devices. It need hardly be added that these students, in most cases, are the ones who need physical activity the most. In addition, it is possible that those people who are so fearful of the word "required" place too much faith in the assumption that only those things will be educationally beneficial which are undertaken voluntarily.

If, as is generally conceded, physical education contributes to the maximum development of the individual; if, as is the case in nearly all our colleges and universities, physical education is required for graduation, it would be sound educational practice to grant credit for these courses. Such action would greatly enhance the value of physical education to students, who cannot be expected to respect, or to take seriously, any course which patently is not so regarded by the administration. A physical education requirement without credit, the principles of which might be rejected by many members of the faculty, would do much to make the administration of the program difficult and would limit its usefulness.

Education is a complex process. It necessitates, on the part of a college, a broad program which will provide its students with every inducement and facility for the development of capacities and habits contributory to effective living. Physical education, in helping to meet the health, recreational and personality needs of each student, plays an important part in the process.

Spelling at the College Level

W. S. GUILER

DURING recent years, spelling books have been improved, more training has been required of teachers, and supervision has been extended. In view of this greater opportunity to produce good spellers, the question of whether we are producing results commensurate with our opportunity is still a matter of major concern. Evidence gathered from recent surveys of spelling achievement and presented in Table I shows that the results are disappointing. The data exhibited in the table are based on scores made on a spelling test which was constructed by the writer. The test purports to measure ability to spell the 5,000 words in most common use.

TABLE I
PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS EXHIBITING WEAKNESS IN SPELLING

Grade Level of Students Tested	Number of Students	Percentage of Students Under the Standard of the Grades Listed Below								
		12	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4
College freshmen	331	42	27	15	12	3	2			
Twelfth grade	291	46	34	28	22	12	9	1		
Ninth grade	742				51	34	24	8	3	1

Two lines of action are suggested by these retardation data. First, the evidence clearly indicates that a considerable amount of "raking behind the wagon" needs to be done. Second, the evidence seems to indicate that we ought to investigate our administrative and teaching techniques in order to discover whether these techniques may not account, at least in part, for this poor quality of learning product.

Pending the investigation of these techniques, we should do well to rid ourselves of certain school traditions and misconceptions which have blinded us to our real task. One of these misconceptions is the ground-to-be-covered fallacy. All of our efforts in the teaching of spelling should be centered on the mastery of those words which are within the active vocabulary of learners and which occur with sufficient frequency to warrant our requiring them to be learned. Another of these misconceptions is the one which views the teaching of

spelling as a matter of hearing lessons. Needless to say, lesson-hearing cannot be accepted as a substitute for teaching. Our mediocre results are probably due, in large part, to the fact that spelling has been too much heard and too little taught. A third misconception is the fallacy of the "passing mark." A passing mark of 70 per cent or 80 per cent will not suffice. Learners must be protected against this tradition, for the reason that society is intolerant of the individual who misspells three, or two, or even one word out of every ten. It goes without saying that with the abandonment of these fallacies we should be on the lookout for those guiding principles of administrative and teaching technique which have the support of experimental evidence and which are sanctioned by the best educational thought.

For a number of years, Miami University has recognized the problem inherent in the survey findings presented in Table I. Accordingly, the institution has been giving special attention to the needs of weak spellers and has evolved an individualized remedial program in order to help these students overcome their spelling handicaps. The procedures used and the results attained in the operation of this program with fifty-two students in the School of Education during the 1943-44 college year are reported in this article. The time devoted to the remedial project varied according to the needs of the individual students. On the average, the amount of class time consumed was approximately twenty class periods per student, the range being from five to thirty-nine periods.

SOURCE OF DATA

The data on which the report is based were derived from scores made on the test to which reference was made in the first paragraph of this article. The fifty words comprising the test were selected from the 5,000 words most commonly used in writing, as determined by Horn's study,¹ and were scaled on the basis of difficulty. Each word has a value of one point, the highest possible score being fifty points. Form 1 of the test was given just before the project began, and Form 2 was given whenever one or more of the students completed the project. The two forms of the test are equivalent in difficulty.

¹ Ernest Horn, *A Basic Writing Vocabulary: 10,000 Words Most Commonly Used in Writing*. University of Iowa.

PROCEDURES

Selecting the Students. Discovering the weak spellers constituted the first step in the remedial program. The students were selected on the basis of scores made on the preliminary test, which was given early in the first semester to all the freshmen in the School of Education. The students selected as remedial cases were those having scores of 32 and below. The distribution of the scores made by the fifty-two remedial students on the preliminary test is shown in Table II.

TABLE II
SCORES MADE BY THE 52 REMEDIAL STUDENTS ON THE
PRELIMINARY TEST

Score	32	31	30	29	28	27	26	25	24	23	22	21	20	19	18	17	16	15	14	13	12	10	9
Frequency	1	3	3	4	3	3	6	5	5	1	3	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

The major fact revealed by this distribution of scores is the marked variation in the spelling ability of the students concerned. Analysis of the test data in the light of the test norms shows that, while the scores of four of the students approximated the norm for college freshmen, the scores of four other students indicate four or more years of retardation in spelling ability. Twenty-nine of the students made scores below the twelfth-grade level; fifteen, below the eleventh-grade level; eight, below the tenth-grade level; four, below the ninth-grade level; and one, below the eighth-grade level.

Organizing the Remedial Program. The second step in the project consisted in the organization of a systematic program of remedial instruction and practice. Remedial class periods were scheduled at four o'clock and at five o'clock on the first five days of the school week. The students were required to attend three periods each week until they had completed the work; however, they were free to choose either hour on any of the days designated. The attendance requirement for the remedial groups was the same as for all classes in the university. The program was operated on a mastery basis, and individual students were released from the remedial work whenever they could demonstrate their competency in spelling all of the words for which they were held responsible. The fact that the students knew they would be released just as soon as they could prove their competency helped greatly to sustain motivation. The materials used for diagnosis, instruction, and practice are contained in a volume

entitled *Remedial Spelling*.² This volume is organized on a unit basis and consists of two parts: a Study Book and a Test Book. The purpose of the Test Book is to help individual students discover the particular words in the Study Book on which they should focus attention and effort. The 1,000 words included in the volume were selected on the basis of both their social value and their difficulty. These 1,000 words are the ones among the 5,000 in most common use that have the highest FD product (frequency x difficulty). The FD product was used as the basis of selection because neither social value alone nor difficulty alone constitutes a sound criterion of word selection in the field of spelling. A word may have high frequency and yet present little or no difficulty. On the other hand, a word may have high difficulty and yet occur too infrequently to justify its inclusion in a carefully derived word-list. The social value of the words was determined by their frequency of occurrence in Horn's study. The difficulty of the words was established by testing more than two hundred typical college freshmen on all of the 5,000 words.

Administering the Remedial Program. The administration of the instructional and practice work constituted the third step in the remedial program. The steps taken in this phase of the program are the ones listed below. First, the project was administered on an individualized group-instruction basis, thus permitting each student to proceed from one unit to the next at his own pace. The only requirement was that the student be able to demonstrate a high degree of proficiency in the spelling of the words in the units which he had completed. In conventional school programs, time is the constant factor, and achievement is the variable. In the program reported here, mastery was the constant, and time was the variable.

Second, before beginning the study of a unit, the student was given a diagnostic test, the purpose being to discover the particular words in the unit on which study should be focused. This phase of the work was based on the principle that any economical and effective plan for overcoming weaknesses in spelling must first of all identify for each learner the words that he cannot spell in a list of words which he should be able to spell. After the troublesome words in a unit were identified, they were marked for special attention in the student's Study Book; moreover, the difficult parts of these words were underlined. The use of this technique for identifying and recording

² Walter S. Guiler. Harrison Publishing Company, Columbus, Ohio.

troublesome words had the advantage of enabling the student to use his time during study and practice in a way that was both economical and effective.

Third, the class work was administered in terms of the specific needs of individual students. When a considerable proportion of the students displayed weakness in spelling certain words, group instruction was employed; when only a few of the students experienced difficulty with these words, instruction and practice was provided for the particular pupils concerned. There is no point in having students go through the motions of learning something they already know.

The early part of the class period was given over to helping individual students make a careful analysis of their word difficulties. This use of instructional time is in keeping with the principle that weaknesses in spelling can be most effectively overcome to the degree that learners are made aware of the nature of their difficulties and of what they need to do in order to master their difficulties. The points at which some of the remedial students encountered difficulty in the spelling of the words in one of the units, together with the nature of the difficulties, are shown in Table III. This table is presented because it contains the type of diagnostic and analytical information that was needed in the effective guidance of the remedial students.

Inspection of Table III reveals a number of salient facts. One fact is that certain types of errors characterized the misspellings: errors of insertion, errors of omission, errors of substitution, errors due to faulty pronunciation, errors due to doubling or failure to double, errors due to lack of word meaning, and the like. A second fact is that many of the words have characteristic points of difficulty. All of the students who misspelled the word "stationery" (Word 11) substituted *a* for *e* in the last syllable, and all who misspelled the word "acknowledgment" (Word 17) inserted an *e* between the letters *g* and *m*. A third fact is that some of the words obviously were misspelled because of pronunciation difficulties. The misspelling of the word "incidentally" (Word 23) is a case in point. A fourth fact is that some of the misspellings probably were due to syllabification difficulties. Note, for example, the misspellings of the word "accommodate" (Word 14). A fifth fact is that the students differed markedly in the matter of particular words misspelled. Thus, while Students 5 and 6 each misspelled nine words, they misspelled

only one word in common. Another fact is that some of the words caused much more difficulty than others. Some of the words were misspelled more than three times as frequently as others. Still another fact is that certain pupils encountered far more difficulty than others. Student 12 missed almost six times as many words as Student 1.

TABLE III
POINTS OF DIFFICULTY AND NATURE OF THE DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED BY TWELVE REMEDIAL STUDENTS IN SPELLING THE WORDS IN ONE OF THE UNITS

Words	Student											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1 transferred			ere		ere			ere		ere	ere	ere
2 oversight						ite					ite	ite
3 preferred						ff r		ere		ere	ere	ere
4 equipped				ipt						iped	iped	iped
5 compliance					*		ence		ence		ence	ence
6 inasmuch								*				*
7 wholly							oley	oley	oley	lely		oly
8 occasions			ocass			ss	ss	ss	ss		ocass	ss
9 duly				ue		ue	ue	ue	ue		ue	ue
10 bulletin	uli	it				itan		iten	iten	iten		ui ne
11 stationery					ary			ary	ary	ary		ary
12 existence							ance	ance	ance			ance
13 remittance									ence	ence	ence	ence
14 accommodate		omo	omo	oma	omo				omo			
15 referred			ere				ff r					
16 referring	eri		eri									
17 acknowledgment				deg	deg			deg	deg	eri	eri	
18 ascertain							acc			deg	deg	
19 all right					al**		al**			acer		
20 extension	tion				tion			tion		tion	tion	tion
21 attorneys		nys			ies	ies	ies			ies	nys	ies
22 principal				ple	ple				ple	ple		
23 incidentally				tly		aly		tly	ple	ple	tly	tly
24 Chautauqua		ela				taq	taq		taq	taq	atua	Chat
25 cancellation						ela	ela		ela		ala	ela
Number of words misspelled	3	4	5	6	9	9	10	11	14	15	16	17

* Spelled as three words

** Spelled as one word

The later part of the class period generally was used for teaching the students how to master their difficult words, and for the supervision of practice. The teaching consisted of simple, clear, and direct presentation of words that had been misspelled. Having a record of the results of the difficulty analysis readily at hand, the teacher

was in a position to render expert assistance in clearing up the troublesome spots in the misspelled words. During the presentation, emphasis was placed on correct pronunciation for research and experience alike have shown that misspelling and faulty pronunciation are very closely related. Syllabification also received attention whenever the circumstances justified it. Moreover, stress was placed on the meaning and use of all misspelled words, because research indicates that mispronunciation of a word and lack of its comprehension often go hand in hand. One investigator has reported recently that 78 per cent of the mispronunciations included in his study "were accompanied by inaccurate comprehension."

Testing for Mastery. The final step in the remedial program consisted in retesting the students in order to discover whether they were ready to be released from the remedial work. For this purpose, an equivalent form of the preliminary test was used. Since individual students were permitted to proceed at their own pace with mastery as the goal, different students took the final test at different times. The test was given whenever the students, either singly or in groups, could give satisfactory evidence of their competency to spell all the words for which they were held responsible. Students were released from the remedial work if their score on the final test was not lower than 48 on the first trial, or lower than 49 on the second trial; thereafter, they had to make a perfect score (50). Different forms of the final test were used in the subsequent trials. Occasionally, the final test showed that some student had not mastered all the words in the spelling list. Under such circumstances, he started anew by taking the diagnostic test over the first unit and proceeding systematically from unit to unit until he had discovered and mastered all the troublesome words. When the student could convince the teacher that he really knew all the words in the spelling list, he was given another form of the final test.

RESULTS

Improvement in Spelling Ability. The amount of improvement in spelling ability that was made by the fifty-two remedial students is shown in Table IV. All of the means shown in the table were computed from undistributed scores. The percentage gain was computed on the basis of actual gain in point score in relation to possible gain in point score. Analysis of the table shows that all of the remedial

TABLE IV
IMPROVEMENT IN SPELLING MADE BY 52 REMEDIAL STUDENTS

Initial Test Score		Final Test Score		Individual Points of Gain	
Score	Frequency	Score	Frequency	Points of Gain	Frequency
32-33	1	50	3	38-39	2
30-31	6	49	16	36-37	1
28-29	7	48	33	34-35	2
26-27	9			32-33	2
24-25	10			30-31	3
22-23	4			28-29	5
20-21	4			26-27	3
18-19	3			24-25	8
16-17	2			22-23	11
14-15	2			20-21	6
12-13	2			18-19	7
10-11	1			16-17	2
8-9	1				
Total	52		52		52
Mean	23.6		48.4		24.8

students made marked improvement in ability to spell the 5,000 words most commonly used in writing. The mean score was raised from 23.6 on the initial test to 48.4 on the final test. Interpreted in terms of grade norms, the gain in mean point score is the equivalent of a mean growth of more than four years in spelling ability. The individual points of gain are even more striking. The smaller gains made by some of the students need to be interpreted in the light of the fact that the better spellers were confined within a narrower range of possible improvement than were the poorer spellers. The percentage gain from initial to final test was 94.0.

Time Needed to Complete the Program. The time needed to complete the remedial program is shown in Table V. Because of the fact that the remedial program was operated with mastery as the constant factor and time as the variable, the data exhibited in the table have special significance. The major fact revealed by the table is the marked variation in the time needed by individual students to complete the remedial work. The mean number of class periods needed for completing the work was 20.5, the range being from 5 to 39 periods.

Effect of Intelligence on Spelling Achievement. The relation of in-

TABLE V
NUMBER OF CLASS HOURS SPENT IN COMPLETING THE REMEDIAL WORK

Number of Class Hours Spent	Number of Students	Number of Class Hours Spent	Number of Students
39	1	18	2
37	1	17	1
30	5	16	4
28	3	15	1
27	2	14	1
26	4	13	1
25	3	10	4
24	6	9	1
23	2	8	1
21	2	5	4
19	3		
		Total	52

telligence to the time needed by the students to complete the remedial program is shown in Table VI. A study of the table shows that the mean number of class periods that were needed to complete the work was approximately four more for the students in the lower intelligence half than for those in the upper intelligence half; however, the mean number of class hours needed for completing the remedial work was less for the students in the lowest intelligence third than for the students in the middle intelligence third. The coefficient of correlation between intelligence and the number of class hours spent by individual students in completing the program was $.528 \pm .069$.

Effect of Initial Status on Spelling Achievement. The relation of initial status in spelling to the time needed to complete the remedial program is shown in Table VII. Inspection of the table shows there was a progressive increase in the mean number of class periods needed to complete the program from one initial status classification to the classification below; however, the increase was not as marked from

TABLE VI
MEAN NUMBER OF CLASS HOURS SPENT BY STUDENTS OF DIFFERENT INTELLIGENCE LEVELS IN COMPLETING THE REMEDIAL PROGRAM

Intelligence Group	Upper half	Lower half	Highest third	Middle third	Lowest third
Mean Number of Class Hours	18.7	22.5	16.9	23.2	21.5

TABLE VII
MEAN NUMBER OF CLASS HOURS SPENT BY STUDENTS OF DIFFERENT
INITIAL SPELLING ABILITY LEVELS IN COMPLETING THE
REMEDIAL PROGRAM

Initial Spelling Ability Level	Upper half	Lower half	Highest third	Middle third	Lowest third
Mean Number of Class Hours	18.8	22.2	16.0	22.1	23.3

the middle to the lowest third classification as it was from the highest to the middle third classification, or as it was from the upper to the lower half classification.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The data on which this report is based seem to justify the following summary and concluding statements:

1. College freshmen vary widely in ability to spell the words most commonly used in writing. Some of them spell better than the best quarter of teachers in service, while others do not possess more than average eighth-grade ability.
2. Marked improvement in spelling ability may be expected from a remedial program which first discovers the words in common use which individual students cannot spell and then bases instruction and practice on a careful analysis of word difficulties.
3. Poor spellers need to be provided with techniques of word mastery.
4. The difficulties which students encounter in spelling are individual and specific. Different students encounter different points of difficulty within the same misspelled words.
5. The time needed to complete the program was related quite closely to initial spelling ability.
6. There was a significant correlation between intelligence and the time required to attain word mastery.
7. Students of all levels of mental ability were able to profit significantly from the remedial work.

Editorial Comment

Credit for Military Service

THE American Council on Education, all accrediting agencies, and most colleges and universities of the country are united in the position that credit for military experience should be granted only on such bases as are outlined in Higher Education and National Defense, Bulletin No. 69, July 26, 1944, issued by the American Council. The granting of blanket credit is frowned upon in all academic quarters, and the position is generally taken that credit should be allowed only upon the basis of demonstrated proficiency in subjects corresponding to courses normally offered at the college level.

In taking this position, college and university authorities have no desire to deprive any veteran of benefits rightfully due him. They do wish, however, to protect institutional standards and the integrity of the college degree. They recognize furthermore that the GI Bill has as its purpose the granting of aid to the veteran so that he may complete an educational program that has been interrupted by military service.

Most veterans will be completely satisfied with such adjustments. Some will not be. In a good many instances college authorities will be pressed by veterans, by patriotic organizations, by poorly informed lay persons, and perhaps by those with political motives to grant blanket credit in varying amounts for military service, irrespective of its character.

It behooves all college authorities, therefore, to adopt at the earliest date possible clearly defined policies based on the principles referred to above, and to take steps to see that these policies are enforced. The institution that makes an exception not only jeopardizes its standards and creates for itself grave administrative problems, but likewise makes it more difficult for other institutions to observe sound practices. There must be a united front if the mistakes of the previous post-war period are to be avoided. The veteran should be given every possible educational aid and service, and he should be deprived of no college credit to which he can demonstrate a real claim. He should not, however, expect an institution to depart from sound educational practices merely that he may be given a degree or have shortened the time required to obtain one.

L. M. C.

A Letter from the President

To the Members of the A.A.C.R.:

In his address given at the 1944 convention of the A.A.C.R., Mr. A. J. Brumbaugh, Vice-President of the American Council on Education, called attention to the difficulty experienced by educational associations in securing comparable enrollment data that could be used in connection with various types of studies. He stressed the need of computing student enrollment at colleges or universities on the average equivalent full-time student basis and indicated that a relatively large number of registrars apparently were not prepared to compute enrollment on that basis. At its meeting in April, 1944, the Executive Committee of our Association considered this matter, prepared an appropriate resolution, and presented it to the convention assembled for final action. The resolution was adopted without a dissenting vote. Both Mr. Brumbaugh's address and the resolution were published in the JOURNAL for last July.

The Executive Committee also requested the President to write a letter to the members of our Association earnestly urging every registrar to be prepared to compute the enrollment in his institution on the full-time student equivalent basis. As you know, the use of this enrollment unit for purposes of comparison is practicable for any college and university whatever its educational plans may be, and is applicable to all kinds of resident instruction. It affords a more exact measure of the carrying load of a college or university than is provided by enrollment data based on individual counts.

Full instructions in regard to methods of computing enrollment, including the procedure for determining the equivalent full-time enrollment, may be found in Bulletin No. 6, *Suggested Forms for Enrollment Reports of Colleges and Universities*, published by the National Committee on Standard Reports for Institutions of Higher Education. These bulletins are no longer available but our Association has ordered a limited number of reprints. One of these reprints is being mailed to each member of the Association. Additional copies may be secured, at 25 cents each, by writing to the Editor.

E. C. MILLER
President

You Are a Responsible Administrator

Whether you are known as a Registrar, a Director or Dean of Admissions, or a University Examiner, or as one of a number of other titles for a similar position, you occupy one of the most strategic and most important administrative offices in university administration. None save the chief administrative officer of the institution is charged with so great a responsibility. None, it safely may be insisted, has within his power greater opportunity for exercising wise leadership of truly educational nature. To you your superiors and colleagues have a right to look for sage counsel and sound advice. To you they will come constantly and from you they most certainly expect to receive effective guidance.

Your influence is far reaching among lay groups everywhere. Through you the parents and friends of the many students on the campus will receive advice and help in the determination of policies and plans for the education of all the youth admitted to our halls of learning everywhere. You are the contact man between college and society at large—between the town and gown, so to speak. You stand *in loco parentis* to the students themselves. To you they should increasingly look for help not only when admitted to the institution but during their entire stay on the campus.

Record keeping? Yes! But more than that, record interpreting. Figures alone have significance in certain respects but as such their significance is limited. They have greater meaning when interpreted in the light of individual student achievement and of institutional growth and educational service to those educated and fitted for useful and worthy citizenship.

Such responsibility as this suggests and implies that you must ever be a student of your job. As such you grow on the job. There can be no "stalemate" so far as your "winning of the game" is concerned. You must also be capable of envisioning greater usefulness, and that on a higher level, on the part of the institution. This is particularly true in times such as those through which we are now passing. Our universities and colleges are being called upon as never before to serve our nation and mayhap the world in the reconstruction and rehabilitation of people, of institutions, and of nations. You have a most important part to play in envisioning these newly emphasized tasks. In so doing you will be instrumental in preserving the best and discarding the worst so far as education is concerned.

Take courage then and rise to your full stature as an educational administrator. Dignify your labors and be assured of the recognition that will come to your high office.

G. W. R.

The G.I. Bill of Rights

The recent enactment into law of proposals for "readjustment of servicemen" discharged from the armed forces should be of the greatest concern to admissions officers and registrars in universities and colleges throughout the nation. One of the major provisions in the "G. I. Bill of Rights" is that pertaining to the education of returning veterans, of whom there are approximately a million and a half already, so we are informed.

In brief, this measure among other things gives service men and service women the opportunity of resuming their education or technical training, or of taking refresher or retraining courses, not only without tuition charge up to \$500 a year, but with the right to receive a monthly living allowance while pursuing their studies. The extent of the privileges allowed under this act varies somewhat depending upon the length of time the returning soldier spent in active service after September 16, 1940. No course of training shall exceed four years.

Schools and colleges eligible to be approved for offering these benefits to returned soldiers will be designated through proper state officials and further announced by the National Veterans' Administration. It is important that all admissions officers become fully informed as to the educational provisions of this measure and be prepared to counsel and advise with all returning soldiers concerning their educational needs, interests and capacities. Doubtless many, if not all, of the colleges and universities will have set up a special advisory committee or consultation board to function as the central agency in advising with each returning soldier and planning for him an educational program suitable and effective for his own needs and capacities. In one institution known especially well to the writer, the faculty has approved special provisions for evaluating all educational experiences of the men and women in the services in terms of possible advanced standing credit; it has approved special provisions relative to the admission of high school graduates and non-graduates; it has authorized the creation of a special consultation board of three to five

persons which will consider the problems of each individual person returned from the services and counsel with and advise him as to his particular program of studies; it has endorsed an increasing number of less than four year curricula intended to qualify persons rapidly for entering upon useful remunerative employment.

All of these actions are in harmony with the anticipated provisions of the "G.I. Bill". Society at large and the government know that what the veterans want more than anything else is the "assurance of satisfactory employment upon their return to civil life". Providing employment, which is the eventual purpose, it is realized will for many thousands require educational opportunities which are but preparatory to a gainful occupation or profession. Universities and colleges must be ready to make their contribution to the realization of this end. This challenge requires that we willingly accept the responsibility of facing many new and significant demands and adjust our educational programs to them.

Here are some of the provisions of the bill which are of special interest to collegiate registrars as taken from "The National Legionnaire".

- a. Financial assistance of \$50 a month for the single and \$75 a month for those with dependents, plus \$500 a year for tuition fees, for one year, for those wishing to complete their education at any school of their choice, with provision for four years of schooling if they (the veterans of World War II) qualify.
- b. Vocational training or refresher courses for fitting for jobs.
- c. Educational benefits require 90 days' service after September 16, 1940—discharge for disability in line of duty if less than 90 days' service.
- d. Effective employment aid, including counselling and placement in jobs.

We as admissions officers should get in touch with our local and regional Veterans' Administration headquarters, familiarize ourselves with all of the various forms necessary to be filled out by the veterans, acquainting ourselves with the problems faced by these officers in the Veterans' Administration and offering our services as college and university officials anxious to co-operate with all agencies, political and otherwise, that are endeavoring to make the transition from war to peace less hazardous and far more satisfying.

Failure to comprehend, to the fullest extent, the responsibilities now facing institutions of higher learning in making adjustments to

the peace time challenges so rapidly approaching might well mean an alienation of support and confidence. Those who have created and established and who now are taxed in one manner and another to maintain these institutions have a right to expect us to accept the responsibilities. The ages have demonstrated that education is the bulwark of freedom and the guarantee of individual growth and self realization for those who will serve humanity in the next quarter of a century. Yes! The G.I. Bill of Rights does require something of us, too!

G. W. R.

Rechristening the JOURNAL

At the business meeting of the Association last April, the Executive Committee, acting upon a suggestion from the Editorial Board, recommended that the title of the JOURNAL be changed. A show of hands indicated approval of this recommendation, although not by any large majority. The reasons advanced for the change were (1) the fact that the present title is cumbersome, (2) the feeling that it does not adequately represent the scope of the JOURNAL, and (3) the belief that many prospective readers are consequently not reached, because they assume it to be a trade journal instead of a magazine devoted to the whole field of higher education.

The search for a new title has so far not been altogether successful. The first one suggested, "American Higher Education," has been almost discarded because of probable confusion with the *Journal of Higher Education*, which is a sister publication in good standing. A list of other suggestions was sent out in July to members of the Editorial Board and the Executive Committee; the only thing their comments revealed was that they favored a change, but differed widely in their opinions of the suggestions offered.

The new name, when adopted, should be more or less permanent. It must therefore be chosen carefully and only after thorough consideration. The idea of making the change this year has been given up; perhaps Volume 21, which begins a year from now, may bear the new title. Meanwhile here are most of the names so far suggested. The Editorial Board would welcome additional ones, and urges you to express your opinions about these or any others. In any case, the present title would continue to be carried as a sub-title.

Academic Administration
The Academic Review
Administration in Higher Education
The American College
American College Quarterly (or Review)
The American College and University
College and University
College and University Quarterly (or Journal, or Review)
The Collegiate Record
Higher Learning
The North American College Review
The Transcript
University Administration
University-College Journal

Book Reviews

Breaking the Academic Lock Step. The Development of Honors Work in American Colleges and Universities. Aydelotte, Frank. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1944. pp. xiii + 177.

Dr. Aydelotte has done a fine piece of work in his most recent book. It is the record of an investigation undertaken by the Faculty of Swarthmore College, "whose book," says Dr. Aydelotte, "it is." Some thirty-five members of the Swarthmore Faculty visited one hundred and thirty American colleges and universities to find out about their schemes for dealing with superior students. *Breaking the Academic Lock Step* is a report on these findings, drawn up by Dr. Aydelotte, the principal advocate of Honors Work in the United States.

The title of the book is significant. The academic lock step is the system of courses and credit hours which must be satisfactorily completed by an American undergraduate before he receives a college degree. As is shrewdly pointed out in the second chapter, this system has been developed because of the vast number of students who have come to American universities, especially since the first World War. It has been necessary to have some definite organization to take care of so many and such varied studies, but the definiteness of the organization has proved a drawback, especially for the more able students, whose initiative and resourcefulness have been impaired by a network of technical requirements.

The ideas of Dr. Aydelotte, as is well known to American educators, have been greatly influenced by the Oxford system of pass and honors degrees, which are explained in this book as a preparation for a detailed description of the Swarthmore Plan. The distinctive feature of this plan is its use of seminars instead of individual tutorial instruction and the consequent enlarging of departments into groups of related subjects, on which honors students can profitably spend the entire time of their last two years in college. Swarthmore College has worked out this seminar system with extraordinary success because of the *esprit de corps* for whose establishment Dr. Aydelotte is largely responsible.

After the exposition of the Swarthmore Plan, the systems in vogue in other American universities are explained under three heads: honors work as an extra to the prescribed curriculum, part-time honors plans, and honors work on a full-time basis, which is favored as the most efficient and practical way of treating superior students in the last two years of their college course. These chapters contain the result of the research conducted by the Swarthmore Faculty and are essentially statistical in their nature. Like all statistics, they are rather hard reading, but the officers

of each university mentioned will be greatly interested in the account of their own institution. They will want to see how exact a description of their individual system is given and how it fits into the general picture of American education.

These chapters are the core of the book. They are supplemented by a consideration of the problem in large state universities, where inferior students as well as superior ones must be reckoned with. There is also a discussion of honors work in secondary schools, the curriculum of the freshman and sophomore years in relation to honors work, and the connection between honors work and graduate study. All these subjects are treated with the greatest lucidity. A clear view of honors work in all its phases emerges from a large number of facts and figures.

The most exciting parts of Dr. Aydelotte's book are the chapters dealing with the organization of honors instruction and examinations and with the administrative and financial problems involved in the plan. Here Dr. Aydelotte relates very honestly the difficulties that lie in the path of honors work and the criticisms that have been brought against it. He takes great pains to explain how the system should work ideally, how it does work practically, and how it affects the organization and intellectual life of a university where it is at least a partial success. He has some keen comments to make on the problems that it creates for tutors and on the way young instructors should be treated for their own advantage as well as that of the university of which they are an important part.

Comprehensive examinations are discussed in detail, and the reason for outside examiners is explained at some length. The cost of these is found to be about \$2,000 a year; the additional expense involved in the creation of a satisfactory honors system will amount to an increase of from fifteen to twenty per cent in the annual budget. A reduction in the number of formal courses offered by the faculty is a necessary and not a harmful way of keeping down costs when a distinction is to be made in the treatment of average and superior students.

One subject which Dr. Aydelotte does not treat very thoroughly is how the distinction between average and superior students is to be made. Students have a way of being average in some respects and superior in others; they sometimes rise or fall from one category to another during the course of their college education. Is it absolutely necessary to make such a hard and fast classification of students as an honors system seems to demand? Is it not possible that average students will also profit from being treated as individuals, even though they do not rise to such high levels as the more innately capable? Is it really important to treat these two classes of students in entirely different ways? As Dr. Aydelotte himself admits, education depends more upon the capacities of students and teachers than upon any system of classes, seminars, or tutorial conferences.

The important thing in all educational systems seems to be to keep them from becoming rigid, a demand which will probably be more and more insistent in the post-war world. Dr. Aydelotte's introductory chapter, which one suspects was the last one written, is an extremely persuasive discussion of the need for liberalizing a liberal education. As it says, "We must learn to see the error in that superficial interpretation of democracy which assumes that all men are equal in intellectual ability. . . . The ideal for democratic education good enough to meet the needs of the post-war world must be not security but excellence."

Breaking the Academic Lock Step is not only an encouragement to all those who are striving for excellence in American education but an immense stimulation to all teachers and administrators who are aware of how far below excellence their own efforts have reached. It is a book which should be read carefully by any one interested in improving our educational institutions; it should be weighed and considered, although all its conclusions need not be accepted literally at their face value.

HENRY TEN EYCK PERRY
Director of Tutorial Instruction
University of Buffalo

Education in Wartime and After. Stanford University School of Education Faculty. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1943. pp. 446

This interesting book has resulted from a study of educational needs in wartime by the faculty of the Stanford School of Education. It represents the judgment of the full faculty who were on duty during the period of the preparation of the manuscript with reference to school problems during and after the war. The volume presents major guidelines to direct action in adapting schools to war and post-war needs, chiefly at the elementary and secondary school levels.

The book opens with a discussion of the goals and problems of the American people at war. The three major goals discussed are (1) the achievement of military victory; (2) the advancement of the democratic way of life, both now and in the post-war world; and (3) the promotion of international well-being after the war. Then follow chapters on the leadership role of public education in the war emergency, American unity through education, education and the national morale, school and community in wartime, and democratic relationships in the schools. These are exceedingly interesting, thoughtful chapters, pointing the way American education must go if it is to meet the challenge of the present emergency.

War and the school curriculum is next discussed under four general headings: (1) directing the efforts of the secondary and of the elementary

school more immediately toward the war effort; (2) meeting special problems of the elementary school; (3) maintaining and advancing freedom of teaching in a crisis period; and (4) advancing good educational practices to build democratic values. The problems and issues raised concern every department in the school, and there follows a long, pointed, and very stimulating consideration of the contributions which can be made by teachers in the various subject fields to the general and special education of youth in wartime. The point of view throughout is that school leaders and subject field teachers can take their part in the war effort with great effectiveness if they bear in mind the fact that their major task is that of providing educational experiences favorable to the growth and development of youth, for it is upon our youth that we must depend if this war is to be followed through to the building of a good society in the post-war period. The chapter on the subject fields should receive the careful attention of every thoughtful high school teacher. It is excellent material. It covers substantially all secondary school subject fields and their relation to the war period in considerable detail.

Adequate educational personnel, school finance, war-boom migration and vocational education and guidance all receive treatment in separate chapters. Briefly treated also are education in the axis countries, in countries conquered by the axis, in Great Britain, in Latin American countries, and in the Soviet Union. The implications for American education in the experiences in wartime education of foreign countries are touched upon.

The book concludes with a chapter titled, "After war—what for Education." The human resources of post-war society will depend on what education can accomplish in the immediate present. That is why the task of the school stands out as the crucial one in our society, both from the standpoint of winning the war and of building the post-war world.

This reviewer is impressed by the sincerity, the common sense point of view, the stimulating thoughtfulness of this presentation. He can commend the book both to school men and to laymen who like interesting reading about schools and their problems in times such as these.

GEORGE P. TUTTLE
University of Illinois

Mental Health in College. Fry, C. F. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1942. pp. xix + 353.

This book describes the work of the Division of College Psychiatry and Mental Hygiene of the Department of University Health at Yale University, over a ten year period. It is intended to present a picture of the psychological problems encountered in a college population and to demonstrate the necessity for a psychiatric service.

At Yale, the mental hygiene service is a joint project of the School of Medicine and the Department of University Health. Recently, it has been staffed by two psychiatrists and a clinical psychologist. Several different procedures have been used to bring in students in need of psychiatric help. At first, informal lectures were given to small groups of freshmen. Then, for a period of four years, a brief psychiatric examination was included in the routine physical examination given to all entering students. Subsequently, referrals have either been voluntary or have come through the university staff or other interested parties.

During the ten-year period which is reviewed, about fifteen hundred students were seen. Sixty-one per cent were undergraduates and thirty-nine per cent were from the Graduate School and the various professional schools. Of the undergraduates, forty-five per cent were freshmen and seventeen per cent were seniors.

The book consists of a series of case histories, representative of the types of problems presented. The first group of cases involves problems of personality growth, including those relating to family and to sex. The second group contains problems of scholastic and social adjustment to the undergraduate environment. In the third group are the special problems encountered in the graduate and professional schools. The discussion of these histories includes analysis of the etiologic factors involved, of the results of psychiatric treatment and of the relationship between emotional maladjustment and scholastic achievement.

This study should be of particular interest to college administrators and to those concerned with college personnel problems. The author's thesis—that a mental hygiene service constitutes an essential part of a university's facilities—is strongly supported by the data presented. It is to be hoped that many more institutions will recognize the need for such a service, especially during the period of readjustment following the war.

C. R. STROTHER

*Associate Professor of Clinical Psychology
and Speech Pathology
The State University of Iowa*

Liberal Education. Van Doren, Mark. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1943. pp. x + 186.

This book was written at the request of the American Association of Colleges and the Carnegie Corporation of New York. The preface states that "the immediate occasion of the book is the war which in the United States has almost completely suspended liberal education" and it is "concerned with the kind of liberal action that must some day be restored."

After affirming that no one is satisfied with the sort of education he received, feeling that there was too much of some things and too little of others or that some important studies were entirely omitted, the author discusses what constitutes an educated person and whether all persons in a democracy should be educated. Many definitions of an educated person are quoted and then summarized as the ability to establish relationships between the past, present and future and to evaluate the problems of permanence and change. In answering the question of how many should be educated the author maintains that each individual should "be given as much liberal education as he can take" although the question should never be how many but how well it is being done.

In the following chapters, the liberal arts and liberal education are treated historically and the ideas of the trivium and quadrivium are set forth as well as the development of the tradition that the study of the classics, English literature or the humanities afforded everything liberal. A liberal education as the writer sees it should contain that which all men should know: a common body of fact and truth; a basis for an understanding of wisdom and virtue; and some experience in the almost discredited "formal" discipline. Since he holds that a "genuine curriculum will permit no student to miss any important thing anywhere" he favors a prescribed curriculum. In this connection he makes quite a strong indictment against the elective system which with its heterogeneous choice of studies has led to lack of cohesion and continuity. He further suggests that a truly integrated curriculum demands that "teachers have the bravery to extend their knowledge beyond the specialties they started with" if students are to have stimulating intellectual leadership.

The chapter on which there would be the most diversity of opinion is "The Idea of a College" in which after discussing the necessity for both discipline and freedom in education and after making comments on many of the subjects taught in colleges, he describes the plan in operation at St. John's College in Maryland. While he holds no brief for the particular list of books which constitutes the basis of their curriculum, he believes that their plan offers a partial solution to the question of what should be covered in a liberal education and a definite challenge to those interested in planning for post-war liberal education.

JOY SECOR
Smith College

How to Use Letters in College Public Relations. Butterfield, William H. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1944. pp. xiv + 182.

The author, who is chairman of the Department of Business Communication and Editor of Public-Relations Bulletins, The University of Oklahoma, has, indeed, given us a fine study of one method of effective communication—a method which, unfortunately, is being overlooked or neg-

lected by too many college administrators. Many of us can make practical use of this little book which the subtitle describes as a "survey of principles and a source book of effective examples." This is not a volume intended for the post-war period, although it is timely, for as the author says, our American colleges and universities have never been more squarely "on the spot" than they are today. But as they face the future "their effectiveness in meeting responsibilities will depend in part upon their success in consolidating the support and helpful interest of their alumni and others who realize the importance of education." In order to stimulate interest in one phase of laying the foundation for the all-important public relations program, Mr. Butterfield has written this book. He states that its purpose is to point out some of the best opportunities for making use of personal letters. "Paradoxically," he says, "the types of letters which have the greatest potentialities are the ones most often overlooked."

Our interest is at once awakened as we review such attractive chapter titles as "Gone But Not Forgotten," "Who Cares More Than Parents?," "Is He Too Close To Be Noticed?," "The Professional Man Is Human," and "In a Nutshell." Dozens of actual letters from college administrators are used by the author throughout the book to illustrate his theories. He claims that it is the personal letter—written in a spirit of friendliness and cordiality, written to a person as if he were an individual—that is really the message of goodwill. It is the "extra" letter—the one not written in fulfillment of a duty—that is appreciated. In other words, "the human touch gets results."

Prof. Butterfield discusses the different groups that are affected by the personal letter. Naturally, the "Gone But Not Forgotten" group is the alumni. Congratulatory messages should be sent as members of this group attain success; grateful letters of acknowledgment for special services rendered the institution should not be omitted and friendly letters should go to men in service, for the spirit of such letters will not be forgotten when the men return to civilian life.

Evidence of considerate interest on the part of college officials in the fathers and mothers of undergraduates will make many of them staunch supporters for the rest of their lives. A friendly letter from the dean, the counselor, the president, the registrar, or from any other college administrator will do much to build parental confidence and good will.

The student himself should not be neglected. He may be alarmed when he sees in the morning mail a letter from his college. But when he finds it to be a letter of commendation from a college official, his loyalty to the institution has been won. The author devotes a chapter to a discussion of the contacts that can be made with prospective students by means of personal letters—letters that may not be necessary—and yet, the prospective student will feel that there exists an interest in his own personal welfare.

College administrators wish to engender loyalty in another group—the business and professional men. Our author points out that contacts can be kept alive by “letters enclosing printed folders or bulletins on professional subjects, notes following up short-course attendance, messages acknowledging outstanding professional achievements on the part of their recipients—all these maintain and strengthen public relations with professional groups.”

And as a summary of the use of letters in maintaining effective college public relations, no better words than the author's can be found when he says, “You should be making the most of personal letters every day to cement new friendships for your institution. When the seeds of goodwill have been carefully sown, the crop they produce is a perennial one.”

All college officials, including the registrar, will find that this book will stimulate them to an active consciousness of the value of the personal letter to their public-relations program.

HAZEL H. FEAGENS

The American University

The Finance of Higher Education. Russell, John Dale, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1944. pp. xii + 361.

For the first time there is found in one place a broad and well-developed picture of the functions of the business office in colleges and universities. The financial problems of institutions of higher learning are discussed in this book without the aid of technical language. Previous writings have been fragmentary and widely scattered, and have covered only special phases, rather than the whole field, of institutional finance.

This book is as important to presidents, deans, registrars, and faculty members as it is useful to students of the problems of institutional financial administration. It outlines the relationship between business and other academic functions emphasizing the part business offices should play in the successful operation of colleges and universities. In the smaller colleges the business functions may be performed by some academic officer such as the president. In the larger institutions, however, the business and financial operations become complex and extensive, and require special talent on a full-time basis.

The academic success of most institutions has been greatly assisted by wise and efficient management of its business affairs. Regardless of the size of the institution, the “satisfactory conduct of financial and business affairs in a college or university depends not only on expert services of the business office but also on an intelligent understanding of financial problems by members of the board and by all the major officers on the executive staff.” One might go further and say that an enlightened understanding of the financial problems by the faculty members would have untold beneficial effects upon the institution. The conduct of an insti-

tution's business affairs has a wide impact upon its program and growth for "effective methods of business and financial management not only permit the direct improvement of the educational service but also tend to attract increasing support."

Particularly valuable to institutional administrators should be the chapters on "Budgetary Procedure" and "Analyses of Expenditures." The chapter on "Analyses of Expenditures" points the way to a better utilization by college and university administrators of certain unit cost or "unit expenditure" comparisons. Interesting light has been thrown on unit expenditure statistics and proper cautions have been made against their ill-advised use. The abuses, criticisms, and advantages of unit costs are critically examined. Officials of colleges and universities, and research students, might well experiment and seek out further refinements and techniques in cost analyses for institutions of higher learning. The cautious use and proper interpretation of cost analyses are as important to educational administrators as to industrial managers who place much reliance on such analyses and have highly developed the techniques. Educational administrators might well consider more extensive use of unit expenditure statistics in their institutions as a guide for future actions or assisting in evaluating present policies.

The material on the budget and its use as an administrative device is well balanced. The function of the budget in maintaining financial solvency, planning of programs, and carrying forward the objectives of the institution is properly appraised. Many times the true functions of a budget are not understood by faculty members or units of the institution. The place of the business officer, under direction of the president, in preparation, control, and operation of the budget has been indicated and well analysed.

Other subjects examined in this book are types and frequency of financial reports, classification and analyses of expenditures, sources of financial support, tuition and student fees, student financial assistance and aid, endowment and trust fund management, purchasing, auxiliary enterprises, financial campaigns, and the financing of special projects such as retirement plans, new buildings, extension courses, or summer sessions.

Participation by the author in many educational surveys of colleges and universities and membership on several special committees dealing with educational financial problems has contributed materially in making this volume of practicable benefit to all executive officers of institutions of higher education.

ROBERT OSBORNE BAKER
Assistant Comptroller
The Vendo Company
Formerly Bursar
University of Kansas City

In the Journals

"The Army Quits the Colleges," Robert G. Hawley, *Harper's Magazine*. April, 1944. pp. 419-425.

This is a discussion of the Army Specialized Training program from its beginning in March, 1943, to the curtailment order of February 18, 1944. The plan as worked out by the Army and a committee of educators "seemed a happy solution to two problems: keeping the colleges and universities afloat during wartime, and providing facilities for certain types of training needed by the Army for which it had neither adequate instructional staffs nor physical equipment."

Of the four main divisions, engineering led with about 80 per cent of the trainees, and it was the Basic phase of the engineering program that was the hardest hit in the February curtailment. The Advanced phase continues. The Basic phase, says the writer, was not a technical curriculum at all, but a general college curriculum preparatory to engineering study; and "in general it was understood, at least among the college faculties, that the men would be technicians." . . . "Many college engineering instructors felt, and still feel, that the curriculum was unsuitable. The men were naturally somewhat confused."

This writer is specific in his criticism of the A.S.T.P. program. Most of the difficulties appear to group themselves under the need for hurry, military secrecy, lack of precise understanding of objectives and methods of reaching them, insufficient time to prepare for instruction and housing, delays in the arrival of men after such preparation had been made, insufficient time for study, lack of norms to gauge achievement, and methods of selection and classification. The last one was met by the establishment of STAR units in June, 1943.

"The Basic program was running much more smoothly by February, 1944, than at the start. The Area and Language group had been better selected, had had less curriculum trouble, and had done the colleges a service by introducing them to new and in some cases very effective methods of language study."

"That there has been much that has been worthwhile in this program, especially from the students' standpoint, is undeniable. Many boys got a portion of a college education who might otherwise never have had a chance at it. Many turned out to be excellent students, and undoubtedly many will return after the war is over with a great desire to go back to college and finish."

" . . . Whatever their future relations with the government may be, at any rate college administrators and professors will be virtually unanimous in the hope that, when the war ends, whatever provision is made for government aid to soldiers who want to go to college will be based on a clear and workable plan, developed well in advance, and adapted to educational realities. Once bitten, twice shy."

J. A. A.

The Colleges and the War Effort

The American Council on Education, as every Registrar knows, was among the first to call attention to the problems involved in dealing with military credits, and has taken the lead in the formulation of policies for solving them. Bulletin #69 in the series on "Higher Education and National Defense" makes a significant contribution to this policy-making process. It is reproduced here by permission.

COLLEGE CREDIT FOR MILITARY EXPERIENCE AND FOR EXPERIENCE IN CIVILIAN ACTIVITIES RELATED TO THE WAR

The reception of *Sound Educational Credit for Military Experience, a Recommended Program*, issued by the American Council on Education in February, 1943, indicated that institutions of higher education throughout the country were in general agreement with its recommendations.

Both the colleges and the secondary schools now face the problem of putting into effect the policy to which they have subscribed. This problem is to establish a common and defensible procedure in determining the nature and amount of educational credit or the appropriate classification that should be granted for training and educational competence gained by members of the armed forces. The responsibility of an institution for deciding what recognition it wishes to give to this type of educational experience is in accord with our American tradition and should be preserved.

It becomes more and more apparent, however, that many institutions are seeking advice as to how to proceed in evaluating military educational experience. Moreover, there is an impending danger that some institutions, either because of pressures exerted by various groups, including legislative bodies in some states, or because of their competitive position in attracting students, may adopt policies that are not in accord with good educational procedure. This problem is accentuated by the fact that students are presenting to high schools and colleges credentials for work done in a variety of military training programs.

Because of the immediacy and urgency of this problem, the American Council on Education invited its Committee on Accrediting Procedures and other consultants to study the whole problem and to present recommendations relating to it. The Committee also reviewed the findings and suggestions of an informal group of representative college admission officers, registrars, and deans, who spent several days at Madison studying

and examining the operations of the Armed Forces Institute. At this time the Committee recommends the following policies for the guidance of institutions of higher education. These policies have been reviewed and endorsed by the regional accrediting associations and by various national accrediting and educational organizations.

The Committee on Accrediting Procedures is informed that commanding officers and officers in charge of the schools are not authorized to recommend to educational institutions the amount of credit that should be allowed for the various training programs given under their jurisdiction.

POLICIES RELATING TO COLLEGE CREDIT FOR MILITARY EXPERIENCE

A. *Basic or Recruit Training*

1. Institutions should grant credit not to exceed a maximum of one-half semester to an individual who presents evidence of having completed successfully the basic training courses in the armed forces. This credit, if granted, should be assigned to hygiene, military science, physical education, or appropriate electives.

B. *Formal Training Programs of the Services*

1. Competence in technical and vocational fields gained through formal training programs in the armed forces should be demonstrated in examinations in the appropriate fields given through the U. S. Armed Forces Institute, by any available test scores from examinations previously taken while the individual was enrolled in a service school conducted by the several branches of the armed forces, or by the institution to which the individual applies. Credit for such demonstrated competence should be granted by higher institutions only if the fields correspond to technical and vocational subjects for which the institutions regularly grant credit.
2. If an individual in the armed forces believes that through training programs he has achieved knowledge, abilities, and skills corresponding to a subject field for which college credit is ordinarily given e.g., mathematics, physics, or a foreign language, he should demonstrate his competence by taking an examination in the subject field prepared by the Armed Forces Institute, or given by the institution in which he seeks credit, and appropriate credit should be granted.

C. *Army Specialized and Navy College Training Programs*

1. Credit for Army specialized and Navy college training programs carried on by college and university staffs should be determined by each institution in accordance with its usual policies, and such

credit should be recorded by the registrar. For the purpose of transferring from one institution to another, a transcript should be issued, including the credit values, descriptions of the content, and the levels of the course pursued. The institution that receives the transcript should follow its regular policies in determining the credit it will allow.

2. For ASTP, V-12, and other Service courses given on college campuses by college staffs it is recommended that the institution's transcript should include or be accompanied by a statement indicating in each case what the program was equivalent to in terms of courses in regular civilian curricula on its own campus.

D. Correspondence Study, Off-Duty Voluntary Classes, and Independent Study

1. Upon satisfactory completion of correspondence courses given by a recognized college or university in co-operation with the Armed Forces Institute, credit should be allowed on the basis of the policies adopted by the individual institution.
2. Any individual in the armed forces who demonstrates by taking the General Education Development Examination (given either by the Armed Forces Institute or by a higher institution) or by taking the institution's own examinations that he has reached a level of competence in general education corresponding to the satisfactory achievement of college students, should be considered for admission to college, and if admitted, should be given the classification indicated by his examination standing.
3. For educational competence at the college level gained through correspondence courses offered by the Armed Forces Institute or the Marine Corps Institute, off-duty voluntary classes, or independent study, college credit should be allowed on the basis of examinations for which adequate norms are available in the appropriate subject fields. Such examinations for men in service are provided by the Armed Forces Institute. Special forms prepared for civilian use, comparable to the General Educational Development Examinations of the Armed Forces Institute, will be available from the Co-operative Test Service of the American Council on Education. Colleges and universities are also urged to develop and use such other examinations as they deem desirable and necessary to evaluate the competence of such students in their respective curricula.
4. Credit should be officially recorded by the college only for students who have been or are under instruction by that institution. This is not to be construed, however, as limiting the college in advising students regarding their probable classification in the institution.

THE U. S. ARMED FORCES INSTITUTE

For men and women now in service. The U. S. Armed Forces Institute is preparing a standard form of transcript for reporting military experience which has a bearing on school and college credit. This form which includes data on training experiences, off-duty education, and individual educational activities will be available to all branches of the armed forces.

For those separated from the service. A standard separation certificate is being prepared which will be uniform and will include data on training programs, specialist jobs, and other pertinent information.

Requests for information regarding the examinations or courses given by the U. S. Armed Forces Institute and for other data supplementing the record of military experience of an applicant for credits should be addressed to: The Commandant, U. S. Armed Forces Institute, Madison 3, Wisconsin.

GRADUATE CREDIT

A recent canvass of the present practices of graduate schools reveals in general a conservative attitude toward the awarding of graduate credit for correspondence courses and independent study. In the light of present conditions, the Committee believes that institutions may wish to re-examine their policies with respect to this matter. If graduate credit for correspondence and independent study is contemplated, institutions should safeguard their standards by giving examinations to evaluate the students' achievement.

POLICIES RELATING TO CREDIT FOR EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE
GAINED IN CIVILIAN LIFE

Individuals, who, through experience and training in war industries or in other civilian vocations, have achieved educational competence worthy of recognition by colleges, should have opportunities similar to those accorded members of the armed forces to demonstrate this competence. In so far as possible, civilians should be required to demonstrate their achievement on parallel forms of the Armed Forces Institute examinations, which are available through the American Council on Education. The policies relative to college credit for members of the armed forces recommended in the preceding section should be followed in granting credit to civilians.

PROVISIONS FOR COUNSELING

Each school and college must assume the responsibility for counseling both the civilian and the ex-service personnel who may wish to continue their education from the point at which it was interrupted by war service or employment in war production. Trained counselors must be prepared to

interpret the records of the educational and military experience that will be presented by the ex-service personnel or that will be furnished by the armed forces. They must also be competent to advise these students in such matters as the choice of vocations, study habits and reading abilities, recreational and social activities, finance, and employment. The needs for counseling services and the kinds of training that counselors should have are discussed in more detail in *Counseling and Postwar Educational Opportunities*, published recently by the American Council on Education. (Price ten cents)

THE "GUIDE" AND OTHER SERVICES

Upon the Committee's recommendation, the accrediting and educational associations have contributed substantial sums for the financial support of a staff whose present activities are:

1. Preparation of a *Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services* for distribution to schools and colleges. This handbook describes the formal training programs of the armed services and recommends for each program the bases upon which credit should be awarded.
2. Assistance to higher education institutions and secondary schools on policies for interpreting examination reports and records of military service provided by the Armed Forces Institute or by the several branches of the armed forces.
3. Collection of information from educational institutions regarding their policies with reference to credit for educational experience gained in the armed services.
4. Assistance to higher institutions and secondary schools at their request in developing procedures to put into operation the general policies recommended by the Committee on Accrediting Procedures of the American Council on Education.

Inquiries for further information concerning these services and orders for the *Guide* should be addressed to: G. P. Tuttle, 363 Administration Building, Urbana, Illinois. (Price \$2.00)

Most institutions are working on the multifarious problems arising out of the admission of veterans and the credit to be allowed for their military training. Not all have progressed far enough in their deliberations to have formulated definite procedures. Such procedures, however, have been outlined by the University of Michigan, and the report of the Coordinating Committee for Veterans' Service in that institution may serve as a useful guide to administrators elsewhere. The report follows:

ADMISSION AND CREDIT PROCEDURES FOR VETERANS

I. Admission of veterans who have not had training of college grade on college campuses: It is proposed that the following admission plan be adopted for returning veterans who have received basic training and/or six months' training and an honorable discharge.*

A. Veterans whose high school records meet the published entrance requirements, or whose scholarship accomplishments in high school meet the requirements although their records are slightly short in the established sequences, *and* who have not taken any Army-Navy training courses of college grade on college campuses will be admitted by the Registrar's Office, following present procedures supplemented by reports from the United States Armed Forces Institute, to degree granting units of the University. The Registrar's Office will automatically grant the credit for basic military or naval training. (see II D 1).

B. Those veterans whose high school records failed to meet the scholarship requirements before their graduation from high school, but who present evidence, substantiated by USAFI records and adequate tests, that they are able to carry a college program successfully, will be admitted to the Division of Emergency Training.

C. Those veterans with high school diplomas whose high school records are considerably short in the required sequences, but whose scholarship record is good and who present evidence of ability to carry college work successfully by supplementary USAFI records and adequate tests, will be admitted to the Division of Emergency Training.

D. Veterans who are not high school graduates, but who have completed three years of high school work or its equivalent in high school work and educational experiences while in the armed services, and who present evidence of ability to succeed in college by supplementary USAFI records and adequate tests will be admitted to the Division of Emergency Training.

E. Students admitted without a high school diploma will be assisted, if they so desire, in transferring work from college to high school in order to receive their high school diplomas. Some who anticipate careers in certain professions will be required by law or certification regulations to secure a high school diploma. The Registrar's Office will serve as a liaison agency between the high school and the student who wishes to transfer college credit back to high school in order to secure the diploma.

F. The record of any student who fails to secure admission, or whose admission seems inadvisable, will be referred to the University of Michigan Veterans Service Bureau for further advice.

* Those without an honorable discharge will be expected to offer additional evidence on behalf of their application for admission.

II. Proposed admission procedures for returning veterans who apply for transfer credit above that granted for basic training:

A. General Procedures

1. The Office of Educational Investigations maintains a variety of tests for measuring subject matter achievement. These tests are available to schools, colleges, and departments wishing to use them in evaluating achievement.
2. Teaching departments may be called on to make placement or credit recommendations. The departments may elect to compile and administer tests as an aid in this procedure. Such recommendations shall conform, in general, to the usual transfer credit procedures of the unit.
3. Every effort will be made to place evaluations on the previous training of the veteran, and, prior to his arrival in Ann Arbor, to issue the usual statements regarding credit to be allowed. This will enable his mentor, adviser, or counselor to be properly informed and plan the veteran's program accordingly.
4. Some returning veterans with poor college records, prior to the war, may apply for admission. In such cases the total record, including training in the service, will be considered and appropriate action taken.
5. Any student who fails to secure admission to the University will be referred to the University of Michigan Veterans Service Bureau for further advice.

B. Credit for courses of college grade taught on college campuses. The following procedures are proposed:

1. Veterans who are high school graduates and have received training on college campuses before entering service or in Army-Navy programs of college grade will be admitted by the appropriate dean's office, which will specify the credits to be awarded for such work, including the basic military or naval training. (See II D 1)
2. Graduate, Law, Medicine, Dentistry, Business Administration, and Public Health will not admit veterans without previous college work, and will therefore operate under paragraph 1 above.
3. Admissions offices will operate, in general, as they have in the past, in evaluating and crediting transfer work taken as a civilian or in the Navy training program.
4. Transfers from Army training programs of college grade taught on college campuses will present transcripts showing, among other things, the name of the training program, the classes elected, the mark earned, and the semester hours value of each

class, in the thinking of the faculty offering the class. Such statements can be evaluated and the credits allowed applied to the chosen degree program in much the same manner as they have in the past.

5. Evaluations approved for Army courses taught on the University of Michigan campus: With the exception of Army Engineering programs, the faculties have approved the credit value of such courses. A complete list of courses and evaluations will be distributed later.¹ The general form to be used is given below:

<i>Army Group</i>	<i>Time Here</i>	<i>Credit—total 12 Hours</i>
C.A.T.P. Officers	12 weeks	Italian I—Beginning—6 hrs. Area Lectures—Italy Medit. Basin 5 hrs. Modern History and Affairs 1 hr. <i>Credit—total 8 Hours</i>
C.A.T.P. Officers, Class II	8 weeks	French or German 4 hrs. Area Lectures—Central and Western Europe 3 hrs. Military Govt. Specialty Group 1 hr.

Course descriptions are now available for most of these courses and will be available in the near future for all.

6. The University reserves the right to give subject matter examinations for work done in Army-Navy training programs taught in other colleges and universities, as an aid in placing proper credit values on the work for a degree from the University.
- C. Credit for courses of college grade not taught on college campuses. The following procedures are proposed:
 1. Students who have received training of college grade in Officer Candidate Schools, service schools, or other agencies, will present all possible supporting data from the United States Armed Forces Institute (U.S.A.F.I.), or the agency offering the course.
 2. Correspondence courses completed under the auspices of the U.S.A.F.I. will be recognized as to quality and grade level in whatever manner is warranted by the data of the Institute. The amount of non-resident credit so allowed will be determined by the University unit's accepted and published practice with reference to this type of training.
 3. The amount of credit granted for various courses studied may

¹A partial list of Army-Navy courses and their evaluations has been sent the various Deans' offices.

vary according to the degree program of the student. For example one who is majoring in Physics would expect to receive benefit for knowledge in language only insofar as the language credits may be used in his degree program.

4. The University reserves the right to give subject matter examinations for work done in the Army-Navy training programs not taught on college campuses, as an aid in placing proper credit values on the work for a degree from this University.

D. Credit for military service. The following procedures are proposed:

1. Those who have completed basic training and/or six months' service and received an honorable discharge may be given the amount of credit toward an undergraduate degree now granted for the completion of the basic military and naval science program. This credit amounts to four hours. In awarding such credit it should be designated in specific detail characterizing the work, such as:

Army Basic Training	4 hours
Navy Basic Training	4 hours
Marine Basic Training	4 hours

2. Some veterans may request additional credit, beyond the basic level, for technical military training that is parallel to that of the University in present undergraduate programs for advanced military or naval science. Such requests must be supported in full by data of the U.S.A.F.I. or the agency giving the instruction. Up to 8 semester hours may be awarded for such work (the present value of our advanced military or naval science training program for undergraduates). When so awarded, such credit will be listed in specific detail describing the work, such as:

Advanced Armorer's Training	2 hours
Advanced Pharmacist's Mate's Training	4 hours

3. The maximum credit to be granted for basic training will be 4 semester hours and for the advanced training will be 8 hours, whether earned in this University or elsewhere.
 4. The credit equivalent to basic training (II D 1) will be granted automatically. Extreme care and insight will be used in evaluating the credit equivalent to advanced military or naval training (II D 2).
 5. Credit equivalent to military or naval training granted in another institution will be evaluated in the indicated manner (II D 1, 2) when the student transfers to the University of Michigan.
- E. Modifications of graduation and other requirements. The following procedures are proposed:

1. No legal requirements can be waived. It is unwise to waive any degree requirement if waiving that requirement will leave the student unable to practice his profession.
2. Regulations will be enforced in as flexible a manner as possible, so long as no action prejudicial to the veteran's future success is taken. Adjustments may include:
 - a. The senior residence rule may be waived for returning veterans, since the student's failure to comply with the rule is not due to his choice but to the decision of higher authority.
 - b. Veterans must have been in residence two terms, or the equivalent, to be eligible to apply for a degree.
 - c. Concentration, group, and similar requirements will be adjusted whenever it seems necessary and equitable, provided the educational balance of the student's program is preserved.
 - d. Credits will be granted, regulations modified, and degrees recommended by the proper authorities only upon request of the student and presentation by him of appropriate educational data.

Design for General Education for the Armed Forces

Ten basic objectives and twelve specific courses for general education for members of the armed forces are contained in a report which a committee of the American Council on Education has recently completed at the request of the United States Armed Forces Institute. The suggested instructional materials, planned primarily for the period following the end of hostilities, are already being prepared by the Institute for use in correspondence study and group instruction.

"These courses promise to provide opportunities for general education to a larger group of adults than ever before reached by a single program in history," said Dr. George F. Zook, president of the Council, in releasing the report. "The proposed program should serve as an effective bridge between military activities and the return of men and women to civilian life."

The report published for civilian use by the Council as *A Design for General Education* was prepared by a committee under the chairmanship of Dean T. R. McConnell of the University of Minnesota. The courses have been developed for men and women at the upper senior high school or junior college level. However, the Committee points out that persons who have served in the armed forces will possess a more mature point of view than the usual high school or

junior college student, and the courses have been prepared accordingly.

Dr. Zook said, "The committee had not proceeded far with its work before it discovered that civilian educational institutions—particularly secondary schools, junior colleges, and colleges—would be as much interested in this report as the armed forces. These institutions recognize that the postwar educational programs for service personnel will probably demand new curricular patterns. Many schools and colleges are already studying their programs to get ready for this new responsibility. In addition, teachers and administrators throughout the country are reconsidering their provisions for general education." Familiarity with the *Design* should also assist institutions in serving returning service personnel who have enrolled in these courses.

For a working definition the Committee considers general education as "the type of education which the majority of our people must have if they are to be good citizens, parents, and workers." Ten fundamental objectives are formulated in terms of performance—the ways in which educated men might properly be expected to behave. For example, the first objective states: "General education should lead the individual as a citizen in a free society to improve and maintain his own health and take his share of responsibility for protecting the health of others." This general statement is then followed by an outline of (1) the knowledge and understanding; (2) skills and abilities; and (3) attitudes and appreciations which must be acquired in order to achieve the objective. Similar development is given for each of the ten basic objectives.

The report contains outlines of the courses proposed by the Committee. These include Personal and Community Health; Oral and Written Communications; Problems of Social Adjustment; Marriage and Family Adjustment; Development of American Thought and Institutions; Problems of American Life; America in International Affairs; Science—Biological and Physical; Literature—American Life and Ideals in Literature Readings; Form and Function of Art in Society; Music in Relation to Human Experience; Philosophy and Religion—The Meaning and Value of Life; and Vocational Orientation. Extensive bibliographies are provided for each course.

A Design for General Education for the Armed Forces is No. 18, Series I, of the American Council on Education Studies. It is paper bound and sells for \$1.25. Orders should be sent to the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D.C.

In the Office

Most Registrars have been puzzled at one time or another to know what safeguards to set up in the matter of changes in students' names. The question has once or twice come up in open forum meetings of the Association, but no definite policies have been formulated. In response to several inquiries that have reached him, President Ernest C. Miller requested Mr. Howard H. Moore, who is a member of the Treasurer's Office at the University of Chicago, to investigate the matter and prepare a statement for the JOURNAL. Mr. Moore's statement follows. It is especially timely now that Army and Navy insistence on accurate identification makes changes of name more than normally important.

STUDENTS REQUESTING CHANGE OF NAME ON UNIVERSITY RECORDS

Requests are made to registrars from time to time by students that their names be changed on university records. Question arises as to whether such changes may be made legally and if so, what evidence of change of name should be required. The classes of students most frequently requesting a change of name are:

- 1) graduate and undergraduate students, many of the latter being minors;
- 2) women students who matriculated under their maiden names and later married; and
- 3) married matriculants who later obtained divorces.

At common law one could change his name as often as he wished as long as the change was not made for a fraudulent purpose, and the name assumed did not interfere with the rights of others. State laws, such as the Illinois law, now permit an individual to apply to a designated court for entry of an order changing his name. Such laws ordinarily are not regarded as exclusive, but merely permissive, and do not abrogate the common law rule stated above. Under the common law rule there is no objection to a minor's changing his name, or to a divorced woman's resuming her maiden name even without statutory authority or provision in the court order granting her divorce. It should be noted in this connection that only one Christian name is recognized by law; and that neither the middle initial nor the abbreviations "Sr." and "Jr." are, in legal contemplation, part of a person's name.

In the absence of a State law providing an exclusive procedure for changing a name where the student has not yet received a degree, a registrar may properly accept a written request of a student for a change

of name, and make the necessary entry on his records, cross-referencing the records of the student so that both the original and changed name of the student appear. In the case of a minor requesting change of name, it may be considered desirable to have him also present the written consent of his parents or guardian, if any. In every case, however, where an order of court was entered providing for change of name, whether in connection with application for change of name or divorce decree, a certified copy of the court order should be requested by the registrar. Also, in every case where a person's name has been changed by court order, a similar order should be requested to effect additional changes.

Where a request for change of name on university records is made by a person who has received a degree, it would ordinarily be advisable to require a certified copy of the court order authorizing such change. The reasons for this precaution are practical rather than legal and relate to the establishment of proper safeguards governing the conferring of degrees. In case such a person desires a new diploma bearing his changed name, it would be advisable also to require him to return the original diploma to the registrar.

A Record "View Box"

The Registrar's Office at Marshall College has been enlarged in size within the past year to provide more working space for the staff and better protection for the records.

During the remodeling a record "view box" or "case" was built into the partition between the public lobby, used by the students, faculty and public, and the recording and transcription room. The purpose of such a box is to enable students to copy their records and at the same time protect such records from soiling, breaking and the possibility of change of original entries. These factors are important to every registrar from the standpoint of the protection of the record and are especially important if transcripts are prepared by the use of the photostat or by some other photographic method, as soiled records show up in photographic reproduction. The record under this plan is controlled at all times by a member of the registrar's office and cannot be touched by the student, although every entry on the record is clearly visible and all information can be copied by the student.

Details of Construction: During the construction of the partition an opening 18" \times 42" was left in the wall. Into this opening a $\frac{1}{4}$ " pane of plate glass was inserted at an angle. The opening was then encased with a trim similar to that around the doors and windows in the office. A desk 21" \times 62" in size, 32" from the floor was built facing the glass. This desk is in the lobby and is used by the student in copying his record. On

the inside of the recording and transcription room a panel door was inserted which when closed fits snugly against the plate glass. This door is hinged at the bottom with a latch at the top. The door can be opened and closed only by a person in the office. There is also built into the case a fluorescent light which is controlled within the office. The panel door facing the glass is covered with green felt which serves as a pleasing contrast to the white scholastic record. The record is placed on this green felt and when the door is closed fits closely against the glass.

A student who desires to copy his record or get a list of courses which he has had in a certain field, makes his request at the counter. A clerk gets his record from the vault nearby, places it in the view box, closes the door and switches on the light. After the student has copied his record, the clerk takes it from the box and returns it to the vault. No one handles the record but the clerk in the office and she goes about her work while the record is being copied secure in the knowledge that the record will not be soiled, broken or defaced, or any of the original entries be changed.

LUTHER E. BLEDSOE
Registrar, Marshall College

Reported to Us

Alvin B. Quall, formerly Registrar of Greenville College, Illinois, has been made Dean. Miss Bethany Jane Smith is the new Registrar.

Mrs. Pearl McMullen, Registrar, University of Houston, is on leave of absence. Dr. C. F. Hiller, formerly head of the College of Community Service, is the Acting Registrar.

Oscar E. Olson has been promoted from Acting Registrar to Registrar of North Park College, Chicago.

Ronald B. Thompson, Registrar of the University of Utah, took office October 1 as University Examiner and Registrar of Ohio State University, succeeding Bland L. Stradley, Examiner, who has become Vice President, and Edith D. Cockins, now Registrar Emeritus. Mr. Thompson was graduated from Hastings College in Nebraska in 1929, and holds the Ph.D. degree from the University of Nebraska. He has been at Utah since 1936, first in the School of Education and for the last four years as Registrar.

After twenty-four years as Registrar of the University of Idaho, Miss Ella Olesen resigned on September 1. Her successor is Donald D. DuSalt, formerly Assistant Professor of Chemistry. Miss Olesen was Vice-President of the A.A.C.R. in 1930-31.

Major James H. Hutchinson, Dean and Registrar, Arkansas A. and M. College, Monticello, is on military leave. Acting Dean and Registrar is B. J. Fletcher, professor of English.

Robert C. Carlson has been appointed Registrar of Lindenwood College, St. Charles, Missouri.

Lt. R. A. Haatvedt, Registrar and Professor of Classical Languages, Luther College, Iowa, who is on leave for the duration, has been assigned to Stockholm, Sweden, as naval attaché and naval attaché for air. Lt. Haatvedt recently returned from Calcutta, India, where he was stationed for 20 months with the Intelligence Division of the U. S. Navy.

Miss Helen Temple has been appointed Recorder of Scripps College, California.

Ellis M. Sowell, formerly Registrar of Stephen F. Austin State T.C., Nacogdoches, Texas, is now Dean of the School of Business, Texas Christian University.

A. A. Schoolcraft has succeeded Oscar D. Lambert as Dean and Registrar of West Virginia Wesleyan.

Dwight G. Burrage retired as Registrar of Doane College, Nebraska, a year ago, after 38 years in office. He is now living in Newton, Mass. His successor is Theodore S. Oppenheim.

Charles R. Wolfe is now Registrar and Dean of Admissions at Gettysburg College, succeeding Clyde B. Stover, retired.

A. W. Tarbell, formerly Registrar, Carnegie Institute of Technology, who was President of the A.A.C.R. in 1918-19, is living in retirement at Chatham, Cape Cod, Massachusetts.

St. Francis College was moved this summer from Lafayette to Fort Wayne, Indiana, where it has acquired a sixty-acre campus with a fine nucleus of buildings. This institution, founded fifty years ago as a training school for the Sisterhood of St. Francis, recently opened its doors to lay students and has become a four-year Liberal Arts college for women.

H. E. Huber, Dean of the College of Liberal Arts, Ohio Northern University, has been serving as Acting Registrar.

Earlham College, looking forward to its centennial in 1947, has under way a long-range program of improvements which involves additions to buildings and endowment totalling two and a half million dollars.

Bertram J. Steggert, Registrar of Loyola University in Chicago, has returned to his office after an eight months' sick leave. He is at present devoting half time to his duties as Registrar.

Miss Pearl Anderson is now Recorder of Transylvania College, Lexington, Kentucky, succeeding Dr. V. F. Payne.

Bradley Polytechnic Institute, Peoria, Illinois, has organized a new division to be known as the College of Art, Music, and Drama. The former College of Music, School of Fine and Applied Art, and Department of

Speech, were merged into the new college. Harry E. Wood, Jr., formerly of Illinois Wesleyan, is Dean.

Kenneth A. Browne, formerly Registrar and Director of Publications, Hastings College, Nebraska, joined the staff of Doane College, Crete, Nebraska, this fall as Dean of the College and Dean of Men.

Harvey Warren Cox, President of Emory University, 1920-1942, and Chancellor since 1942, died on July 27.

Miss Ann W. Shepard, formerly Recorder of Reed College, Oregon, is now Dean of Women. Miss Carolyn Kuhn is now Assistant to the Registrar, Margaret A. Scott. Mrs. Richard F. Scholz is Director of Admissions.

Edward T. Downer has been appointed to the newly created post of Registrar of Western Reserve University. He is to direct and coordinate the work of registrars already functioning in various divisions of the University, and will serve directly as Registrar of the School of Architecture, the School of Education, and the Graduate School, as well as the Summer Session of Arts and Sciences. He will also act as chairman of a committee charged with the administration of services for veterans. Mr. Downer was formerly Registrar of Cleveland College of Western Reserve, and has since been serving as Regional Education Officer for the O.P.A., with headquarters in Cleveland.

E. S. Mattingly, formerly Registrar of Washington and Lee, is now Treasurer. His successor is Rupert Nelson Latture.

Brother Bonaventure Thomas, F.S.C., has been appointed President of Manhattan College, New York, succeeding Brother A. Victor, F.S.C. Brother Agatho, F.S.C., has been appointed Director of Admissions and Registrar, succeeding Alfred D. Donovan, who resigned to become Registrar of Pratt Institute, Brooklyn.

Alton H. Gustafson, Associate Professor of Biology and Academic Executive Officer of the V-5 Unit at Williams College, Williamstown, Massachusetts, has been appointed Acting Dean of the College and Coordinator of the V-12 Unit.

Oglethorpe University, Georgia, has announced a revision of its curriculum, described in its latest bulletin, *Doors of Opportunity*. Frank Anderson, Registrar, writes that this is "an all-out effort to square the college

curriculum with aims and objectives. Back of the sequence of studies is a philosophy, compactly conceived, which controls the choice and arrangement of courses and so achieves a high degree of simplicity and integration both within and between the several divisions of the University."

Donald R. Watson, Assistant Professor of Physical Science, is Acting Registrar and Director of Student Personnel, San Diego State College, California.

J. A. M. Kimber has resigned as Registrar of Columbia (S.C.) Bible College, and is completing work for his Ph.D. degree at the University of Southern California. Kathryn L. Warren is now Registrar at Columbia Bible College. Rita M. Lentz is Assistant Registrar.

Colgate University was 125 years old last March. It celebrated the occasion with a radio symposium broadcast on Sunday, March 4, planned to emphasize to the nation the past and present contributions and future responsibilities of American colleges.

A Veterans' Adviser has been appointed by the Central Washington College of Education, Ellensburg, Washington, to supplement the work being done by Dr. E. E. Samuelson, Director of Personnel, and Registrar Harold E. Barto. The functions of the new office which will be in charge of E. L. Muzzall, Director of Instruction, will include the processing of all ex-service students, counseling such students with reference to personal and educational problems, and providing guidance concerning long-range educational and vocational plans.

Miss Gertrude E. Mulhollen, formerly Assistant Registrar at Albion College, has been appointed Registrar of Hollins College, Virginia, succeeding Miss Fanona Knox, who resigned to continue graduate study.

Rupert N. Latturo has been appointed Registrar at Washington and Lee University, Lexington, Virginia.

The University of Dayton has announced the appointment as President of the Rev. George J. Renneker, S.M., formerly Vice President and Registrar. Father Renneker is well known among Registrars, and has served as president of the Association of Ohio College Registrars. The new Registrar at the University of Dayton is the Rev. Charles Leo Collins, S.M.

Dr. Karl M. Cowdery, Associate Registrar at Stanford University, died on

September 13th. Dr. Cowdery was a nationally known specialist in educational psychology, and had been active in the Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations.

For ten years a feature of the Commencement program at Earlham College has been the Faculty Recognition Award, an honorarium of one hundred dollars given to a member of the faculty for outstanding service to the College. This year there were two such awards, one of which went to Miss Opal Thornburg, registrar and secretary of the faculty.

The citation for Miss Thornburg was as follows: "In recognition of many years of devoted service in a position requiring the exercise in a very high degree of all the things for which a liberal arts education stands—character, intelligence, and adaptability. In recognition of the fact that throughout these years you have constantly sought to avoid the error of falling into routine and to increase your capacity for better service with the result that you have given us an administration of your important office which is a source of pride and satisfaction to us all."

Our mutual friend "Bill" Hoffman sends us the following clipping, remarking in some surprise that not all the Dumbell registrars are in the United States:

THE UNIVERSITY of LIVERPOOL.
DERBY HALL (Hall of Residence for Men Students).
—The Council invites APPLICATIONS for the POST of BURSAR (Resident) at Derby Hall (130 residents). Salary will be fixed according to qualifications and experience. The successful applicant will be required to take up duties as soon as possible and, in any case, not later than 1st January, 1945.
Applications, &c., should be sent to the Warden, Derby Hall, North Mossley Hill Road, Liverpool 18, before September 16th.

STANLEY DUMBELL, Registrar.

Ohio Colleges to Study Postwar Needs and Facilities

A study of higher education in Ohio in terms of postwar needs and facilities is being made by the Ohio College Association, according to announcement made by President Gordon K. Chalmers of Kenyon College and president of the Association. "Demobilization from industry and the operation of the Bill to provide Federal aid for the readjustment in civilian life of returning World War II veterans will undoubtedly increase the demand for post-high-school education in Ohio," said Dr. Chalmers. "The purpose of the survey is to discover two things: the probable extent of the demand, and possible ways of expanding or adding to existing facilities to meet the demand."

Dr. Earl W. Anderson, Professor of Education and Research Associate in the Bureau of Educational Research in the Ohio State University will direct the survey. Forty-five colleges and universities that comprise the

Ohio College Association will participate in the study. An Advisory Council to consist of representatives of cooperating professional and lay agencies concerned with the problems of post-secondary education will be organized.

Concurrently with this survey committees of the Association comprised of faculty members of various institutions throughout Ohio will study such problems as admissions, vocational guidance, curricular changes and administrative problems, graduate study, permanent values from Army and Navy programs, counseling, adult education, problems of control and finance, and public relations. These committees are working under the leadership of President Kenneth I. Brown of Denison University and President Charles B. Ketcham of Mount Union College.

Members of the Executive Committee of the Ohio College Association besides President Chalmers are President Howard L. Bevis of the Ohio State University, President Helen D. Bragdon of Lake Erie College, President Herbert J. Burgstahler of Ohio Wesleyan University, President Walter S. Gamertsfelder of Ohio University, President Ernest H. Wilkins of Oberlin College, Dean Joseph A. Park of The Ohio State University, and Registrar Arthur F. Southwick of The College of Wooster.

The following release from the National Pharmacy Committee is inserted here because it may be of interest to college guidance officers:

The war has caused a shortage of pharmacists in every American community, according to a recent survey, and unless more young people are attracted to the profession of pharmacy in the next few years, the services of the neighborhood drug store, for so many years an integral part of American life, will be impaired and, what is more important, public health will suffer.

Hospitals, too, are feeling the pinch along with drug and pharmaceutical manufacture and research.

The primary interest, however, to educators is the situation facing colleges of pharmacy as a result of the shortage. A great many may have to close their doors unless additional students are enrolled.

Careful surveys indicate that the shortage of practicing pharmacists can be conservatively estimated at 6,500 by January, 1946 and this estimate is made assuming the return to pharmacy of 10,000 of the 14,000 pharmacists now in the armed services. At present, it cannot be forecast accurately how much greater this shortage will be because of the number that may be required for an expanded Army, a world-wide U. S. Navy or for important work in rehabilitation centers for the wounded.

However, the most startling factor of all is the downward trend of replacements. Pharmacy student enrollments have dropped from a normal of 8,800 to 7,000 in the fall of 1942; to 4,300 in the spring of 1943; to

3,600 in the fall of 1943; to 2,700 in the spring of 1944. Only 800 will graduate in 1944, while between 200 and 300 can be expected to graduate in 1945, and in succeeding years till the war's end.

The practicing pharmacist—consultant—partner of the local doctor—has, as a professional man, always occupied a place of special trust in the American community because he is a trained man, and because his profession brings him into personal and often intimate contact with every man, woman and child in his community. The profession of pharmacy never has been, is not now, and never will be static. Year by year, progress in medical science, sanitation and chemistry steadily broadens the services performed by the profession of pharmacy, and increases the opportunities offered the student.

What are these opportunities? The profession of pharmacy requires high school education. It offers the serious and ambitious student many exceptional opportunities in the postwar era. The labor market will be glutted with ex-service men competing for jobs but pharmacy will be free of any overcrowding.

The National Pharmacy Committee, 620 Fifth Avenue, New York 20, New York, will gladly supply teachers or educational organizations with information on this subject, and has published an interesting booklet, sent free upon request, *Your Future In Pharmacy*.

Directory of Regional Associations

[EDITOR'S NOTE: *The new Chairman of the Regional Associations Committee has assigned to each member of his committee responsibility for keeping in touch with the regional associations in a definite area. The following directory shows these new areas and the committeeman assigned to each.*]

AREA I

MR. J. A. GANNETT, Registrar, University of Maine, Orono, Maine
Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New York, New Hampshire, Rhode Island,
Vermont

No Regional Associations

AREA II

MR. WILLIAM S. HOFFMAN, Registrar, The Pennsylvania State College,
State College, Pennsylvania

Delaware, District of Columbia, Maryland, New Jersey, Pennsylvania

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, William R. Howell, Washington College, Chestertown, Maryland
Secretary-Treasurer, J. M. Daniels, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh,
Pennsylvania

AREA III

MR. G. E. METZ, Registrar, Clemson College, Clemson College, South Carolina
Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Porto Rico

NORTH CAROLINA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, H. R. Eggers, Appalachian State Teachers College, Boone
Secretary-Treasurer, Annette McNeely, Salem College, Winston-Salem

SOUTH CAROLINA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Alice Peck, Converse College, Spartansburg
Secretary, Elizabeth Tribble, Anderson College, Anderson

SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Lloyd W. Chapin, Georgia School of Technology, Atlanta

AREA IV

MR. T. A. BICKERSTAFF, Registrar, University of Mississippi, University P. O.,
Mississippi

Alabama, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi

ALABAMA COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS ASSOCIATION

President, J. F. Glazner, Jacksonville State Teachers College, Jacksonville
Secretary-Treasurer, Eva Wilson, University of Alabama, University

ARKANSAS ASSOCIATION OF REGISTRARS

President, G. Y. Short, Arkansas State Teachers College, Conway
Secretary, Mrs. Clarine Longstreth, Little Rock Junior College, Little Rock

LOUISIANA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Carmel V. Discon, Loyola University, New Orleans

MISSISSIPPI ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Mary Pulley, Mississippi Southern College, Hattiesburg
Secretary, Annie McBride, Belhaven College, Jackson

AREA V

MR. H. T. RAMSEY, Registrar, Lincoln Memorial University, Harrogate, Tennessee
Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia

KENTUCKY ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, Howard S. Higdon, Campbellsville College, Campbellsville
Secretary-Treasurer, Jessie Wilson, University of Kentucky, Lexington

TENNESSEE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Hugh T. Ramsey, Lincoln Memorial University, Harrogate

VIRGINIA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Clarice Slusher, Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg
Secretary, Julius F. Prufer, Roanoke College, Salem

WEST VIRGINIA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, L. E. Bledsoe, Marshall College, Huntington
Secretary, Phyllis Thunn, Morris Harvey College, Charleston

AREA VI

MR. A. C. CONGER, Registrar, Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio
Indiana, Michigan, Ohio

INDIANA ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, Veneta J. Kunter, DePauw University, Greencastle
Secretary-Treasurer, Stanley M. Norris, Arthur Jordan Conservatory of Music,
Butler University, Indianapolis.

MICHIGAN ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

President, R. S. Linton, Michigan State College, East Lansing
Secretary, Florence Donohue, University of Detroit

ASSOCIATION OF OHIO COLLEGE REGISTRARS

President, W. E. Nudd, Case School of Applied Science, Cleveland
Secretary-Treasurer, Helen Burgoyne, University of Cincinnati

AREA VII

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Notices must be accompanied by a remittance in full in favor of *The American Association of Collegiate Registrars* and should be sent to the Editor in care of the *Office of the Registrar, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio*.

Notices will be inserted in the order of their receipt.

Rates: For four insertions, limited to not more than fifty words, including the address, two dollars. Additional insertions at the regular rate. Extra space will be charged at the rate of five cents a word.

In printing these advertisements the Association assumes no obligation as to qualifications of prospective employees or responsibility of employers.

In making this page available to those seeking personnel and to those seeking employment, the Association expects that at least some reply will be made to all those answering announcements.

ADVANCEMENT WANTED:—Man, age, 48, A.M. and Ph.D. in education. Now employed as director of personnel service and registrar, but interested in new position. Qualified in various functions: dean, personnel service, registrar, examiner, admissions officer. Has had experience of many years, including work as dean, director of personnel service, registrar, teacher of psychology and education in large private and public colleges. Also some experience in government service and business. Reply T, care Editor. (1)

ADVANCEMENT WANTED:—College and former public school administrator desires position with larger responsibilities as dean or registrar. Ph.D. in education. Residence in Midwest, East, and West. Experienced in personnel services, academic programs, public relations, student publications, teaching, admissions. Now a college registrar with additional administrative duties. Address B, care Editor. (3)

POSITION WANTED:—Young lady desires position as registrar. B.S. degree. Registrar and teaching experience. Address HB, care Editor. (3)

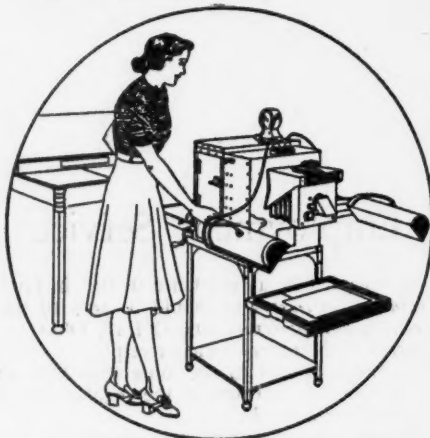
POSITION WANTED:—Man, 37, nine years in ministry. Th.M. degree, desires position: assistant registrar, registrar, student dean, combined or not with teaching Religion in church affiliated college or university, preferably Methodist. Slight experience in college guidance work, as prison psychologist, and as personnel supervisor. Address W, care Editor. (3)

ADVANCEMENT WANTED:—Man, age 38, M.S. and Ph.D. in Zoology. Now Registrar and Assistant Professor of Biology in Liberal Arts College. Broad experience in educational field. Qualified as Dean of Instruction or Admissions, Registrar, Personnel Director. Address P, care Editor. (1)

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